CHAPTER VII.

HISTORY.

The traditional history of Dhárwár goes back to the time of the Pándavs. Hángal fifty miles south of Dhárwár in inscriptions of the twelfth century is called Virátkot and Virátnagari, the Fort and City of Virát, and is locally believed to be the place where the Pándavs (B.C. 1500) lived during part of their exile. The names Virátkot and Virátnagari support the tradition, as, according to the Mahábhárat, Virát was the name of the king at whose court the Pándavs spent the thirteenth year of their exile.[1]

The earliest historical information regarding Dhárwár belongs to the fifth century after Christ. For the history of the eight hundred years between the fifth century and the Muhammadan conquest of the Deccan under Alá-ud-din Khilji (1290-1310) an unusually large number of copperplates and stone inscriptions record the names of dynasties and kings, the year of the inscription sometimes in the Kaliyug but more commonly in the Shak era,[2] the nature of the grant, to whom made and why, and generally add details which throw light on the state of the country at the time. So far about ten copperplates and 600 stone inscriptions have been collected and deciphered at first (1825-1840) by Sir Walter Elliot for some time Sub-Collector of Hubli, and of late years (1870-1884) chiefly by Mr. J. F. Fleet, of the Bombay Civil Service. Banavási in Sirsi in North Kánara, now a little outside of Dhárwár limits, may be regarded as the earliest historical capital of the Dhárwár country. Buddhist references carry the history of Banavási to the third century before Christ, and local inscriptions show that it was a centre of power in the first century after Christ. From the first to the end of the thirteenth century many inscriptions prove that Banavási was the centre of a large territory called the Twelve Thousand which must have included at least the centre and south of the present district of Dhárwár. Next to Banavási, Pánungal or Hángal is the oldest local historical centre. Other ancient places of importance are Annigeri thirty miles east of Dhárwár mentioned in or containing sixteen inscriptions of the eleventh to the sixteenth centuries; Bankápur forty miles south of Dhárwár mentioned in or

---

[1] Mahábhárat, book iv. Virátparv; Indian Antiquary, V. 179; Fleet's Dynasties of the Kánarese Districts of the Bombay Presidency, 7 note 2.

[2] The initial date of the Kaliyug is the spring equinox of B.C. 3102; the Shak era begins in A.D. 78 (March-April).

Chapter VII. History.

EARLY HISTORY.

containing seven inscriptions of the eleventh and twelfth centuries; Chaudadámpur fifteen miles north of Ránebennur mentioned in or containing eight inscriptions of the ninth to the thirteenth centuries; Dambal fifteen miles south of Gadag mentioned in or containing five inscriptions of the eleventh and twelfth centuries; Gadag forty-five miles east of Dhárwár mentioned in or containing nineteen inscriptions of the twelfth to the sixteenth centuries; Lakkundi eight miles south of Gadag mentioned in or containing thirty-five inscriptions of the ninth to the thirteenth centuries; Lakshmeshvar forty miles south-east of Dhárwár mentioned in or containing twenty-nine inscriptions of the tenth to the sixteenth centuries; Naregal sixteen miles north-east of Gadag mentioned in or containing nine inscriptions of the tenth to the thirteen centuries; and Rattehalli ten miles south-east of Hirekerur mentioned in or containing seven inscriptions of the twelfth to the sixteenth centuries. Almost all of these places, though now reduced in importance some even to petty villages, have ruins of beautiful stone temples varying from the ninth to the thirteenth century,[1] built without mortar in what is locally known as the Jakhanáchárya style.[2]

Of Shátakarni or Ándhrabhritya rule in Dhárwár (B.C. 200 - A.D. 200) there is no local record.[3] Considering the wide spread of Shátakarni sway in the Deccan, at Kolhápur, and at Banavási, it is probable that during the centuries before and after the Christian era the lands now included in Dhárwár were subject to the Banavási branch of the Shátakarnis.[4] After the Shátakarnis the district probably passed to the Ganga or Pallav kings.[5] The accession to power of the Early Kadamba dynasty of Banavási and Halsi in Belgaum, after

Kadambas, 500.

---

[1] Details are given below under Places.

[2] Jakhanáchárya is said to have been a prince who having accidentally killed a Bráhman, employed twenty years in building temples from Benares to Cape Comorin to atone for the sin of Bráhman-killing. Ind. Ant. I. 44. In style and date Jakhanáchárya's temples correspond to Hemádpant's temples in Khándesh and the North Deccan.

[3] The Shátakarnis, better known by their Puránik name of Ándhrabhrityas, were a powerful Deccan dynasty which is supposed to have flourished in the three centuries before and after the Christian era. Their original seat was A'ndhra or Telangan, and their capital Dharnikot at the mouth of the Krishna. At the height of their power (about A.D. 10-40) they appear to have held the whole breadth of the Deccan from Sopára in Thána to Dharnikot near the mouth of the Krishna. Their inscriptions and coins have been found at Kanheri and Sopára in the Konkan, at Junnar, Karhád, Kolhápur, and Násik in the Deccan, at Banavási in North Kánara, at the Amrávati tope in the Kistna district, and in other parts of the Madras Presidency. Details are given in Bombay Gazetteer, XIII. 409; XVI. 181-183, 620-623.

[4] An inscription at Banavási shows that about the first century after Christ its ruler was Háritiputra Shátakarni of the Vinhukadadutu family. Details are given in Bombay Gazetteer, XV. Part II. 77, 261.

[5] The Gangas were an early and important family in Maisur. Their history is doubtful as Mr. Fleet (Kánarese Dynasties, 11-12) has shown reasons for believing that several of the inscriptions regarding them are forgeries. The Pallav dynasty was one of the most important enemies against whom the Kadambas and afterwards the Chalukyas had to fight. About the middle of the sixth century they were probably driven out of Vátápi or Bádámi by Pulikeshi I. Early in the seventh century the Eastern Chalukyas forced them out of Vengi on the east coast between the Krishna and the Godávari. In the time of the Western Chalukya Pulikeshi II. (610-634) their capital was at Kánchi or Conjeveram and they long continued a powerful dynasty. The Pallavs rank in the Puráns with the foreign races, the Haihayas, Shaks, and Yavans. Mr. Fleet (Dynastics, 15) has shown reasons for believing that they were Arsacidan Parthians.

defeating either the Gangas or the Pallavs, is the first certain event in local Dhárwár history. These Kadambas, whose origin is not yet fixed, were a family of Jain chiefs whose capital was Banavási and who had minor centres at Uchhrangi near Harihar in North Maisur, at Halsi in Belgaum, and at Triparvat perhaps Trigiri or Tegur in North Dhárwár. Their copperplates, found among other places at Devgiri six miles west of Karajgi, give the names of nine kings and chiefly record, in letters of about the end of the fifth century, grants of villages and lands for the benefit of Jain temples.[1] The subsequent early Hindu history of the district may be divided into three periods. An Early Chalukya and Western Chalukya period lasting from about the begining of the sixth century to about A.D. 760; a Ráshtrakuta period from A.D. 760 to A.D. 973; and the third and last period of Western Chálukya (973-1165), Kalachuri (1165-1184), Hoysala Ballál (1192-1203), and Devgiri Yádav (1210-1295) overlords, when, at least till the end of the twelfth century, the district was directly governed by feudatory Kádamba chiefs whose head-quarters were at Banavási and Pánungal or Hángal. The Early Kadambas appear to have been defeated by the Early Chalukyas about the beginning of the sixth century.[2] The earliest record of Early Chalukya rule in Dhárwár is an undated tablet at Ádur ten miles east of Hángal of the sixth Early Chalukya king Kirtivarma I. (A.D. 567) recording gifts to a Jain temple built by one of the village headmen. The inscription gives the name of Kirttivarma as overlord, Ádur or Pándipur as it is called in the inscription, being then directly governed by two chiefs named Sind and Mádhavatti. This inscription in the heart of the Kadamba territory supports a statement that Kirttivarma defeated the Kadambas which occurs in an important inscription at Aihole, fifteen miles north-east of Bádámi, dated A. D. 634-5.[3] Of the Western Chalukyas (610-760) the earliest local record is a stone tablet at Amin-bhávi seven miles north-east of Dhárwár. It belongs to the second Western Chalukya king Pulikeshi II. (612-634), the contemporary of the famous Chinese pilgrim Hiwen Thsang (629-643),[4] but is wrongly dated 564 (S. 488).[5] The next inscription is a forged grant of the second Western Chalukya king Vikramáditya I. (670-680). It was found at Kurtkoti, about eight miles south-west of Gadag, and bears date 610 (S. 532). It was probably forged in the ninth or tenth century.[6] Of the three next kings, Vinayáditya (680-697), Vijayáditya (697-733), and Vikramáditya II. (733-747) stone tablets, dated 687, 729, and 734, and recording grants to Jain temples and priests, have been found at Lakshmeshvar twenty miles north-east of Bankápur.[7] About 760, when the Ráshtrakutas overthrew the

Kadambas, 500.

Chalukyas, 510-760.

---

[1] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 7-10. [2] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 10.
[3] Ind. Ant. VIII. 23; Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 21.
[4] Hiwen Thsang calls him Pu-lo-ki-she and gives an account of his kingdom of Mo-ho-la-ch'a or Maharáshtra twelve hundred miles in circuit. A special interest attaches to Pulikeshi as an Arabic chronicle relates that in 625 Khosru II. of Persia sent an embassy to him which is believed to form the subject of painting 17 in Ajanta Cave I. Details are given in Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 24-25; and Bombay Gazetteer, XII. 513. [5] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 23.
[6] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 27; Ind. Ant. VII. 217.
[7] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 27, 28, 29; Ind. Ant. VII. 110, 112.

Chapter VII. History.

EARLY HISTORY.

Ráshtrakutas, 760-973.

Western Chalukyas, Dhárwár, like their other possessions, seems to have passed from the Chalukyas to their conquerors. The earliest record of Ráshtrakuta rule in Dhárwár is an undated fragment at Lakshmeshvar of the fourth king Govind III. (803-807), whom the inscription calls Shriballaha or Shrivallabh.[1] Five inscriptions are dated in the reign of Govind III.'s son Amoghvarsh I. (814-877). Of these one, dated 865, was found at Mantravádi four miles east of Shiggaon; a second dated 866 in the fifty-second year of his reign was found at Shirur seventeen miles north-west of Navalgund; a third, dated 869 and found at Soratur ten miles south of Gadag, records that Amoghvarsh's feudatory Ahaváditya of the Ádav (Yádav?) dynasty was then governing the Kuppeya Purigere or Lakshmeshvar province;[2] and two undated occur at Nidgundi five miles west of Bankápur and at Kyásanur seven miles south-west of Hángal. The Shirur inscription records that Amoghvarsh's feudatory Devannayya governed the Belvola Three Hundred at Annigeri.[3] The Nidgundi inscription records that Amoghvarsh I.'s (851-877) feudatory, Bankeyaras of the Chellaketan family, governed the Banavási Twelve Thousand, the Kundur Five Hundred, the Belvola Three Hundred,[4] the Puligere or Lakshmeshvar Three Hundred, and the Kundarge Seventy.[5] The Kyásanur inscription records that Amoghvarsh's feudatory Shankargand, also of the Chellaketan family, governed the Banavási province.[6] Of Amoghvarsh's son Krishna II. (902-911) three inscriptions have been found in Dhárwár, two dated at Mulgund twelve miles south-west of Gadag and at Ádur ten miles east of Hángal and one undated inscription at Kyásanur seven miles south-west of Hángal. The Mulgund inscription, dated 902, calls Krishna, Krishnavallabh, and the Ádur inscription, dated 904, calls him Akálvarsh, and records that the Banavási Twelve Thousand was governed by his under-lord a *Mahásámant* of the Chellaketan family. The undated inscription at Kyásanur calls Krishna Kandarvallabh and records that the Banavási province was governed by his under-lord the *Mahásámantádhipati* Shankargand of the Chellaketan family.[7] Of Krishna's son and successor Jagattung II. probably also called Prabhutvarsh a stone inscription dated 918 has been found at Dandápur two miles north-west of Nargund. Jagattung's son and successor was Nityamvarsh or Indra IV. a stone inscription of whose, dated 916, probably while he was ruling as heir apparent during his father's lifetime, has been found at Hatti-Mattur six miles north of Karajgi. Indra IV.'s successor was his younger son Govind V. an inscription of whose, dated 930, has been

---

[1] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 34. [2] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 35.

[3] Ind. Ant. XII. 216.

[4] Belvola or crop-land, the Kanarese *bele* to grow and *hola* a field, was the country round Gadag, Lakkundi, and Dambal in Dhárwár, Huli in Belgaum, and Kukkanur in the Nizám's Dominions. Fleet, 42 note 3. In a palm-leaf manuscript of the Kolhápur Jains the Chellaketan Bankeyaras or Bank is said to have called after himself the famous city of Bankápur, the greatest among cities. It was the capital of the Vanavás or Banavási province under the Chellaketans. Ind. Ant. XII. 217.

[5] The Sántalige Thousand was a part of Maisur and the Kisukád Seventy was the country round Pattadakal in South Bijapur. Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 42.

[6] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 35. [7] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 35.

found at Kalas fifteen miles north-east of Bankápur.[1] Of the next Ráshtrakuta king Krishna IV. (945-956) four inscriptions have been found two dated 945 at Kyásanur seven miles south-west of Hángal, the third dated 951 at Soratur ten miles south of Gadag, and the fourth dated 956 at Alur five miles south-east of Hángal. The Kyásanur inscriptions call Krishna, Kannara, and record that his underlord the *mahásámanta* Kalivitta of the Chellaketan family was governing the Banavási province.[2] The Soratur inscription gives the name of the commandant of the king's bodyguard Rudrapayya as governing the city of Saratvur.[3] In 973 Krishna IV.'s son and successor Kakka III. was defeated and slain by the Western Chálukya Taila II. who put an end to Ráshtrakuta rule.[4] Dhárwár, with the rest of the Ráshtrakuta territory, passed to the revived Chálukyas whose capital later on (1050) was Kalyán in the Nizám's country about forty miles north of Gulburga. They continued to rule Dhárwár through their feudatories the Kádambas of Banavási and Hángal. The earliest record of Western Chálukya (973-1190) sovereignty in Dhárwár is an inscription at Gadag which describes Taila II. (973-997) as having uprooted the Rattas or Ráshtrakutas, slain Munj king of Málwa, killed the leader of Pánchál in Upper India, and reigned over the whole earth for twenty-four years beginning with 973 (S. 895), the cycle year being Shrimukh.[5] Another of Taila II.'s inscriptions at Tálgund in Maisur dated 997 records that his underlord Bhimras, who was honoured with the title of Tailap's Champion, governed the Banavási province.[6] Of Taila II.'s son and successor Satyáshraya II. (997-1008) three inscriptions have been found in Dhárwár; at Gadag dated 1002, at

Western Chálukyas, 973-1190.

---

[1] Ind. Ant. XII. 223-225, 249. Between Govind V. and his successor Krishna IV. are inserted the names of Krishna III., Amoghvarsh II., and Khottiga. These chiefs do not appear to have reigned.

[2] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 87, 88. An inscription of Krishna IV.'s elder brother Khottiga, dated 971, has been found at Idargunchi village in Hubli. The inscription mentions Khottiga's underlord the Ganga Mahámandaleshvar Permánadi Márasimh as governing the Gangvádi Ninety-six Thousand in Maisur, the Purigere or Lakshmeshvar Three Hundred, and the Belvola Three Hundred, and gives the names of two places Sebbi or Chabbi six miles south of Hubli and Ron the chief town of the Ron sub-division. Khottiga left no issue, and this explains why his date 971 is considerably later than the dates of his younger brother Krishna IV. which begin with 945. It appears that when it became improbable that Khottiga should leave any issue, his younger brother Krishna IV. and afterwards Krishna's son Kakka III. were joined with him in the government. Khottiga seems to have died between the date (971) of the Idargunchi inscription and the date (972) of Kakka's Karda plates. Ind. Ant. XII. 255.

[3] Ind. Ant. XII. 257.

[4] The temple of Bánshankari at Gundur five miles east of Shiggaon has an inscription dated in the year (973) of Kakka III.'s overthrow. Whether after Kakka's defeat and death the Ráshtrakutas lost all their power, or whether, for a time, the Ráshtrakutas continued to govern as the underlords of the Western Chálukyas is not certain. An inscription at Hebbal village near Lakhmeshvar is dated 974-5 and gives the names of two Ganga chiefs as underlords of Kakkaldev and governing the Puligere and Belvola Six Hundred, the Kisukád Seventy, and the Bágе Seventy. The inscription invests Kakkaldev with the usual titles of supreme sovereignty, which seems to show that Krishna IV. survived his son's overthrow and continued to hold some power, or that Kakka III. had a son governing the southern provinces of his kingdom who maintained himself against the Western Chálukyas longer than his father. Ind. Ant. XII. 270-271.

[5] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 40-41.

[6] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 41-42.

Chapter VII. History.

EARLY HISTORY.

Western Chálukyas, 973-1190.

Kanneshvar ten miles south-east of Hángal dated 1005, and at Munvalli one mile north-west of Bankápur dated 1008. The Gadag inscription records that under Satyáshraya as overlord, Sábhanras or Sobhanras governed the Belvola Three-Hundred and the Puligere or Lakshmeshvar Three-Hundred. The Kanneshvar inscription records that Satyáshraya's underlord Bhimráj, known as Taila's Champion governed the Banavási, Kisukád, and Sántalige districts. Of Satyáshraya II.'s nephew and successor Vikramáditya V. (1008-1018) three inscriptions have been found in Dhárwár; at Sudi nine miles north-east of Ron, at Alur five miles south-east of Hángal, and at Galagnáth twenty miles north-east of Karajgi. The Sudi inscription is dated 1010; the Alur inscription, also dated 1010, records that Vikramáditya's underlord Iriva Nolambádhiráj governed parts of Maisur and Dhárwár; the Galagnáth inscription is dated 1011.[1] Of Vikramáditya's younger brother and successor Jaysimh III. (1018-1042) three inscriptions have been found. One dated 1025 is at Kalyán four miles south of Shiggaon, a second dated 1026 is at Hávangi seven miles south-east of Hángal, and a third dated 1033 is at Benkankond five miles south of Ránebennur.[2] Among Jaysimh III.'s Dhárwár underlords and officers were the Mahámandaleshvar Kundamras of the Kádambas of Banavási and Hángal[3] who was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand and parts of Maisur and Kánara; the Dandanáyak Barmdev who in 1024 was governing the Taddevádi Thousand, the Belvola Three Hundred, and the Puligere Three Hundred; and the Mahámandaleshvar Mayurvarma II. of the Kádambas of Banavási and Hángal who in 1034 and 1038 was governing the Pánungal or Hángal Five Hundred. Of Jaysimh's son and successor Someshvar I. (1042-1068) inscriptions have been found at Nilgund twelve miles south-west of Gadag, at Ádur ten miles east of Hángal, and at Ingalgondi eight miles south of Kod. The Ádur and Nilgund inscriptions are dated 1044 and the Ingalgondi inscription is dated 1049. In 1044 Someshvar I.'s underlord in charge of the Pánungal Five Hundred was Mayurvarma II. of the family of the Kádambas of Banavási and Hángal; and in 1045 and again in 1062 the Mahámandaleshvar Chávundráy of the same family was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand. Someshvar's aunt Akkádevi seems to have held a command during his reign, as, in an inscription dated 1047, she is mentioned as laying siege to the fort of Gokáge or Gokák in Belgaum. In 1049 Someshvar's eldest son Someshvar II. was governing the Belvola Three Hundred and the Puligere Three Hundred. In 1053 Someshvar's chief queen Mailaladevi was entrusted with the government of the Banavási Twelve Thousand; and in 1055 Someshvar's second son Vikramáditya VI. was governing the Gangvádi Ninety-six Thousand in Maisur and the Banavási Twelve Thousand with Harikesari of the family of the Kádambas

[1] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 43.

[2] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 43; Dr. Burgess' Lists of Antiquarian Remains, 18, 23, 28.

[3] This is the earliest mention of a Kádamba feudatory of the Western Chálukya kings after the Chellaketans (850-950).

of Banavási and Hángal as his subordinate in charge of Banavási. In 1068 Someshvar's underlord the Mahámandaleshvar Kirttivarma of the Banavási and Hángal Kádambas was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand. An inscription of Someshvar's eldest son and successor dated 1071 mentions an incursion of a Chola king into the Western Chálukya dominions during Someshvar I.'s reign. The Cholas invaded the Belvola Three Hundred, and, burning many temples, went to Puligere or Lakshmeshvar and there destroyed several Jain temples. The Cholas' success did not last long. Someshvar I. repulsed their army, drove them south, and slew their leader in a battle fought at Kakkargond, the modern Kakargundi, on the Tungbhadra between Harihar and Dávangere in North-west Maisur. Of Someshvar I.'s eldest son and successor Someshvar II. (1068-1075) five inscriptions have been found in Dhárwár: one dated 1069 at Sudi nine miles north-east of Ron; one dated 1071 at Soratur six miles south-east of Mulgund, one of uncertain date at Kallukeri six miles south of Hángal, and two dated 1072 at Gavrabad twelve miles north of Gadag and at Gudugudi five miles north-west of Hángal. Someshvar II.'s chief Dhárwár underlords and officials were Lakshmanras, who, in 1071, was governing the Belvola Three Hundred and the Puligere Three Hundred and who repaired the Lakshmeshvar Jain temples which had been destroyed by the Cholas during the reign of Someshvar I.; and Udayáditya of the Ganga family, who, in 1071, was governing at the city of Bankápur and in 1075 had charge of the Banavási Twelve Thousand and parts of Maisur. Someshvar's II.'s successor was his younger brother Vikramáditya VI. (1073-1126) perhaps the most powerful king of his dynasty. Nearly two hundred inscriptions, not yet arranged, scattered over North Maisur, East Kánara, West and North-west Haidarabad, and all Dhárwár, Belgaum, and Bijápur show how completely Vikramáditya ruled the Deccan and Karnátak. One of his most interesting inscriptions is a Buddhist tablet at Dambal which records grants made to a *vihára* of Buddha and a *vihára* of Árya Tára Devi at that town. The inscription is dated 1095 (S. 1017) and proves that the Buddhist religion was a living faith in the Kánarese country as late as the end of the eleventh century.[1] Vikramáditya's leading underlords and officials in Dhárwár were the Kádamba Mahámandaleshvar Kirttivarma II. who in 1076 and 1077 was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand; the Mahápradhán and Dandnáyak Barmdev who in 1077 was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand and the eighteen *Agraháras*;[2] the Kádamba Mahámandaleshvar Shántivarma who in 1018 was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand and the Pánungal Five Hundred; Queen Lakshmádevi who in 1095 was governing the eighteen *Agraháras* and Dharmápur or Dharmavolal the modern Dambal; the Kádamba Mahámandaleshvar Tailap II. who in 1099, 1108, and 1115, was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand and the Pánungal Five Hundred; the Mahápradhán and Dandnáyak

[1] Details are given below under Dambal in Places.

[2] The eighteen *Agraháras* seem to have been eighteen important towns scattered over the Belvola Three Hundred district. Huli was one of them, Nargund another, and Dambal was perhaps a third. Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 48 note 3; Ind. Ant. XII. 47.

Chapter VII. History.
EARLY HISTORY.
Western Chálukyas, 973-1190.

Anantpál who in 1103 was governing the Belvola Three Hundred, the Puligere Three Hundred, and the Banavási Twelve Thousand; and the Mahápradhán Dandnáyak and Chamberlain Govind who in 1114 was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand and the Sántalige Thousand. Vikramáditya's long reign was fairly peaceful, except that his younger brother Jaysimh IV., whom he had placed as viceroy in charge of the Banavási Twelve Thousand, rebelled and winning over many local chieftains advanced as far as the Krishna. In a battle fought near the Krishna Jaysimh was made captive and the insurrection was crushed.[1] Two of Jaysimh's inscriptions have been found, one at Anantpur in Maisur and one at Lakshmeshvar. The Anantpur inscription records that in 1079 Jaysimh was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand; and the Lakshmeshvar inscription records that in 1081 Jaysimh was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand, the Sántalige and Kandur Thousands in Maisur, and the Belvola and Puligere Three Hundreds in Dhárwár. These inscriptions style Jaysimh heir-apparent. He seems to have died before Vikramáditya VI., whose successor was his own second son Someshvar III. (1126-1138). Inscriptions of Someshvar III. have been found at Abbalur and Hire-Kerur in Kod and at Bankápur. The Abbalur and Hire-Kerur inscriptions have not been deciphered, but the two Bankápur inscriptions are dated 1138. Someshvar's leading underlords and officers in Dhárwár were the Kádamba Mahámandaleshvar Mayurvarma III. who in 1131 was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand, the Sántalige Thousand in Maisur and the Pánungal or Hángal Five Hundred; the Kádamba Mahámandaleshvar Tailap II. who in 1135 was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand, the Pánungal Five Hundred and the Puligere Three Hundred; and the Dandnáyak Mahádev who in 1130 was governing at his capital of Puligere.[2] Of Someshvar III.'s eldest son and successor Jagadekmalla II. three inscriptions have been found at Dhárwár; one dated 1143 at Hire-Kerur seven miles south-west of Kod, and two dated 1144 and 1148 at Bálehalli six miles south-west of Hángal. Jagadekmalla's capital was Kalyán, but in 1148 he appears to have had a provincial centre at Kadalipur[3] in the Kondarte Seventy, which was a small sub-division on the Dhárwár and North Kánara Frontier near Hángal. Jagadekmalla II.'s chief Dhárwár underlords and officers were the Dandnáyak Bomanayya, who in 1143 was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand; the Dandnáyak Keshiráj or Keshimayya who in 1142 was governing the Belvola Three Hundred, the Palasige or Halsi Twelve Thousand and the Pánungal Five Hundred. Of Jagadekmalla's younger brother and successor Taila III. (1150-1162) inscriptions have been found in Dhárwár at Pura and Hamsabhávi in the Kod sub-division, and at Háveri in the Karajgi sub-division. The inscription at Pura about three miles south of Rattehalli bears date 1152 and the Háveri inscription is dated 1157.

---

[1] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 50. [2] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 52.
[3] Kadalipur is mentioned in one of the Bálehalli inscriptions. It is probably Bálehalli as Kadalipur is the Sanskrit translation of the Kánarese Bálehalli or Plantain Town.

Taila III.'s leading underlord and officer in Dhárwár was the Dandnáyak Mahádev, who, in 1152, was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand and the Puligere Three Hundred.

Taila III.'s commander-in-chief was the Mahámandaleshvar Bijjala of the Kalachuri dynasty. As later Kalachuri inscriptions record that Bijjala destroyed the Chálukya kings and acquired the whole of the Kuntal country,[1] it is clear that Bijjala abused his trust and used his sovereign's armies to deprive him of his kingdom. An inscription dated 1161-2 (S. 1083) found at Balagámve in Maisur styles Bijjala Mahámandaleshvar, a second inscription dated 1162-3 (S. 1084) found at Annigeri invests Bijjala with full royal titles and calls Annigeri his royal capital. This fixes the date of Bijjala's usurpation between January 1161-2 and January 1162-3. Of the Kalachuri[2] usurper Bijjal (1161-1167) inscriptions have been found at Ablur and Rattehalli in Kod and at Annigeri in Navalgund. Bijjala's leading underlords and officers in Dhárwár were the Dandnáyak Barmaras, who, in 1161, was governing the Banavási country; the Dandnáyak Shridhar who in 1161 was governing from Annigeri; and Káshyapnáyak who in 1163 was governing the Banavase Twelve Thousand and the Pánungal Five Hundred. Though the Kalachuris were Jains, Bijjala took a great interest in Shaivism. His minister Basava, taking advantage of his master's leaning towards Shaivism, started the Lingáyat form of that faith, and securing a large following, dethroned Bijjala and for a time assumed the sovereignty.[3] According to Jain accounts, dreading

[1] The country of Kuntal included, on the south, Balagámve and Harihar in Maisur, and Hámpe or Vijayanagar in the Belári district. To the north of these places it included Lakshmeshvar, Gadag, Lakkundi, and Naregal in Dhárwár, and Kukkanur in the Nizám's dominions; further to the north, Konnur, Kalhole, Saundatti, and Manoli in Belgaum, and Pattadakal and Aihole in South Bijápur; and still further to the north, Bijápur, Taddevádi, and Mannugulli, in Bijápur. Still further to the north, it probably included Kalyán itself; but the inscriptions as yet available do not suffice to define its extent in that direction and to the north-west. In the south-west corner, it included Banavási in North Kánara, and Hángal in Dhárwár, and, on this side, was bounded by the Hayve Five Hundred, which was one of the divisions of the Konkan, and which lay between Hángal, Banavási, and Balagámve, and the coast. To the north of Hángal, the Palasige or Halsi Twelve Thousand, the Venugráma or Belgaum Seventy, and the territory of the Siláháras of Kolhápur, do not seem to have formed part of Kuntala. As they lay along the inland slopes of the Sahyádris and were bounded immediately on the west by the Konkan, they seem to have been treated rather as up-country divisions of the Konkan itself. The principal divisions of Kuntal were the Banavási Twelve Thousand, the Pánungal or Hángal Five Hundred, the Puligere or Lakhmeshvar Three Hundred, the Belvola Three-hundred, the Kundi Three-thousand, the Toragale Six Thousand, the Kelavádi Three Hundred, the Kisukád Seventy, the Bágadage Seventy, and the Taddevádi Thousand. Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 42.

[2] The Kalachuris or Kalachuryas have the title of *Kálanjara-puravarádhishvara*, that is Supreme lord of Kálanjara the best of cities. The original stock therefore started from that city, now the hill-fort of Kálanjar in Bundelkhand. An account published by General Cunningham (Arch. Report, IX. 54) shows that in the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries a powerful branch of the family held Bundelkhand which was also called Chedi. This family seem from their era, which is called either the Kalachuri or the Chedi era, to date from as early as A. D. 249. Their capital was at Tripura, now Tevar, about six miles west of Jabalpur. Members of this Tripura family of Kalachuryas several times intermarried with the Ráshtrakutas and Western Chálukyas. Another branch of the tribe in the sixth century had a kingdom in the Konkan, from which they were driven by the early Chálukya Mangalish, uncle of Pulikeshi II. (610-634). The Kalachuryas call themselves Haihayas and claim descent from Yadu through Kártavirya or Sahasrabáhu-Arjuna.

[3] Details are given in Bombay Gazetteer, XV. Part II. 90.

Chapter VII. History.

EARLY HISTORY.

Kalachuris, 1161-1184.

the vengeance of Bijjala's son Someshvar, Basava fled to Ulvi in North Kánara. He was pursued, and, finding that Ulvi could not stand a siege, he threw himself in despair into a well and was drowned.[1] Of Bijjala's son and successor Someshvar (1167-1174) inscriptions have been found in Dhárwár at Lakkundi and Narsápur in Gadag, at Annigeri in Navalgund, and at Rattehalli in Kod. The Lakkundi and Narsápur inscriptions are dated 1172 and 1173; the Annigeri inscription is dated 1172, and the Rattehalli inscription 1174. Someshvar's Dhárwár underlords and officers were the Dandnáyak Keshav who in 1168 was governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand, the Pánungal Five Hundred, and the Taddevádi Thousand; the Dandnáyak Tejimayya who was the governor of the Belvola country; and the Mahámandaleshvar Vijayapándya, who in 1174 was governing the Banavási country. About 1175 Someshvar was succeeded by his three brothers Sankama, Áhavamalla, and Singana who seem to have shared the government. Sánkama's inscriptions have been found at Ron and Sudi in the Ron sub-division both dated 1180. His chief Dhárwár underlord was the Mahápradhán and Dandnáyak Keshiráj who in 1179 was governing the Banavási country with a subordinate Sampakar of the Gutta family. An inscription of Áhavamalla (1180-83), dated 1182, has been found at Anveri twelve miles south-east of Ránebennur. The only known inscription of Singhana is a copperplate found at Behatti eight miles north-east of Hubli. The plate is dated 1183, and records the grant of the village of Kukkanur in the Belvola Three Hundred.

Though usurped for nearly twenty years by the Kalachuris the power of the Western Chálukyas was not destroyed. About 1182, taking advantage of the disturbances at Kalyán caused by the struggle between Lingáyats and Jains, with the help of Dandnáyak Barmras, apparently Taila III.'s governor of Banavási, Someshvar IV. son of Taila, established himself in the neighbourhood of Banavási and made Annigeri in Navalgund his capital. As Someshvar's inscriptions have been found only at Annigeri in Navalgund, at Dambal and Lakkundi in Gadag, at Hángal Kallukeri and Naregal in Hángal, and at Abbalur in Kod he probably never ruled any large territory. Someshvar IV.'s Dhárwár underlords were the Mahápradhán and Dandnáyak Tejimayya, who in 1184 was governing at Dharmápur or Dambal in the Másvádi country; the Dandnáyak Barmras who in 1184 was governing at the capital of Annigeri; the Mahápradhán Keshavbhatt who in 1186 was governing the Belvola Three Hundred; and the Kádamba Mahámandaleshvar Kámdev who in 1189 was governing the Banavase Twelve Thousand, the Pánungal Five Hundred, and the Puligere Three Hundred. The last inscription of Someshvar IV. is dated 1189. Shortly after this the Western Chálukya dominions were divided between the Hoysala Balláls of Dvárasamudra or Halebid in West Maisur in the south and the Yádavs of Devgiri now Daulatabad in the north.

---

[1] The Lingáyats deny the truth of this story, and say that Basava was absorbed into a *ling* in the temple of Sangameshvar at the meeting of the Krishna and the Malprabha in Bijápur, ten miles north of Hungund.

This division ceased when, about 1210, the whole of the Western Chálukya dominions passed to the Devgiri Yádavs.

Of the Hoysala Balláls[1] of Halebid in West Maisur the first mention in connection with Dhárwár dates as far back as 1137. It occurs in an inscription belonging to the fourth Hoysala king Vishnuvardhan (1117-37), where the excellent Virátkot or Hángal is described as having cried out. Vishnuvardhan's power is said to have extended to Banavási, Pánungal, Halasige, Puligere, and Másvádi in Dhárwár. Vishnuvardhan gained the Halasige district by conquest from Jayakeshi II. (1125) of the Goa Kádambas, and the Banavási and Pánungal districts by the conquest of the Banavási Kádamba Tailap II. (1099-1124). These conquests seem to have been short-lived. The first lasting conquest of Dhárwár was by the great Hoysala king Ballál II. or Vir Ballál (1192-1211), also known as the conquerer of Hill Forts. His inscriptions in Dhárwár have been found at Sátenhalli in Kod, at Benkankond in Ránebennur, at Annigeri in Navalgund, at Hángal, and at Alavandi, Gadag, Mevundi, Mulgund, and Nágámve in Gadag. Vir Ballál was the first of his family to assume royal titles, and as commander-in-chief of his father's army, and by defeating the Kalachuri general Barma in 1183, established Hoysala power in the Kalachuri dominions north of the Tungbhadra. Vir Ballál seems to have made no lasting conquests north of the Malaprabha. In 1192 he established himself at his capital of Lokkigundi, the modern Lakkundi.[2] Before this, besides defeating the Kalachuris, Ballál met and defeated, according to tradition at Lakkundi, the Devgiri Yádav Jaitugi (1183), a victory which gained Ballál the supremacy of the country of Kuntal. An inscription of Ballál's son Narsimh II. describes a battle between Ballál and a certain Seman or Sevun whom Ballál besieged at Soratur near Gadag, defeated, pursued, and slew at the Krishna. In the same campaign besides Soratur, Ballál II. took the hill forts of Erambarge or Yelburga in the Nizám's country, Kurugod near Belári, and Bellitagge, Gutti, Hángal, and Rattehalli in Dhárwár. His first attempt on Pánungal or Hángal was in 1196. An inscription on a hero-stone or *virgal* at Hángal, carved with a lively battle scene, records that in 1196 the Hoysala king Vir Ballál came and pitched his camp at the large

[1] The Hoysalas, who are best known as the Hoysalas of Dvárasamudra in Maisur, ruled from about 1039 to 1312. Their name is also written Hoysana, Poysala and Poysana. They belong to the lineage of Yadu, and seem to be connected with the Yádavs of Devgiri (1189-1312) as they both have the family titles of Yádav-Náráyan and of Dvárávati Puravarádhishvar, supreme lords of Dvárávati the best of cities, apparently Dvárasamudra, the modern Halebid in West Maisur. Vinayáditaya (1039) was the first of the family to secure any considerable share of power. The two chief men of the family were Vishnuvardhana from about 1117 to 1138, who was independent except in name, and Ballál II. (1192-1211) who overthrew the Kalachuri successors of the Chálukyas and also defeated the Yádavs of Devgiri. His son Narsimh II. (1233) was defeated by the Yádavs, and his great-grandson Ballála III. by Alá-ud-din's general Malik Káfur in 1310. They sustained a second and final defeat from a general of Muhammad Tughlik's in 1327. The following are the successions: Vinayáditya (1047-1076), Ereyanga, Ballála I. (1103), Vishnuvardhana (1117-1137), Narsimh I., Ballála II. (1191-1211). Narsimh II. (1223), Someshvar (1252), Narsimh III. (1254-1286), and Ballála III. (1310). Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 64; compare Wilson's Mackenzie Collection, New Edition, 64.

[2] Besides at Lakkundi Ballál II. had a capital at Annigeri.

Chapter VII. History.

EARLY HISTORY.

Hoysala Ballals, 1137-1210.

Ánikere pond to the west of the city and from it laid siege to the city. The stone tells how Sohani and his son Padmayya or Padmanna, the leaders of the Kádamba garrison dashed out and routed the assailants, though the victory was marred by the death of the Kádamba leader Sohani. Ballál II. returned and about 1200 succeeded in taking Hángal. Still the Kádamba chief Kámdev struggled on and in 1203 held Sátenhalli in Kod. Ballál II.'s leading underlords and officers in Dhárwár were, in 1192, the Mahápradhán and Dandnáyak Ereyana or Eraga governing the Banavási Twelve Thousand and the Sántalige Thousand; in 1199 the Mahámandaleshvar Ráydev governing the Belvola country; in 1202 the Mahámandaleshvar Jagadala Bhattamdev governing the Kuntal country; and in 1203 his Dandnáyak Kamathad Mallisetti governing the Sántalige Seventy and the Nágarkhand Seventy in the Banavási country. Ballál's II. son and successor Narsimh II. lost all that his father had won of the old Western Chálukya dominions. Narsimh retired to Dvársamudra and seems never after to have attempted to pass north of the Tungbhadra.

Devgiri Yádavs 1187-1320.

Narsimh's rivals and conquerors were the Yádavs of Devgiri in the North Deccan.[1] The first mention of the Devgiri Yádavs in connection with Dhárwár is in the reign of the third Devgiri king Bhillam (1187-1191) whose son Jaitugi I., apparently in Bhillam's lifetime, was defeated by Vir Ballál in a battle fought, according to tradition, at Lakkundi in Gadag. As this victory is said to have secured to Ballál the country of Kuntal, Bhillam must have then held a fairly extensive kingdom including Dhárwár. One of Bhillam's inscriptions, dated 1189, at Annigeri in Navalgund speaks of Annigeri as the capital from which his underlord the Mahámandaleshvar Báchiráj or Báchan was governing the Belvola country. Of Bhillam's grandson Singhan II. (1209-1247) inscriptions have been found in Dhárwár at Gadag, Lakshmeshvar, Chaudadámpur, and Rattehalli, and a copperplate at Haranhalli on the Tungbhadra in Ránebennur. In 1215 Singhan's Mahápradhán Hemmayyanáyak was the manager of the customs duties of the Banavási country; in 1219 Singhana II. held the whole of the Banaváse Twelve Thousand; in 1223 his Dandnáyak Jagadal Purushottam was governing the Torgal Six Thousand; in 1241 his Mahápradhán Lakshmipál was governing the Nágarkhand Seventy; and in 1247 his Mahápradhán and Senápati Báchiráj was governing the Karnátak and other countries from the capital of Pulikarnagar or Lakshmeshvar. Of Singhan's grandson Krishna (1247-1253), inscriptions have been found in Dhárwár at Behatti, Chaudadámpur, Gadag, and Nágámve. Of Krishna's successor Mahádev (1260-1270) inscriptions have been found at Chaudadámpur, Pura, and Sangur. Of Mahádev's nephew and successor Rám-

[1] The Devgiri Yádavs (1150-1312) were a dynasty of ten powerful kings who held almost the whole of the Deccan before the Musalmán conquest. Their capital was originally at a place called Tenevalage, then at Vijayapur or Bijápur the great Adilsháhi capital, and afterwards at Devgiri the modern Daulatabad in the Nizám's territories. Their greatest king was the ninth Rámchandra or Rámdev (1271-1310), in the latter part of whose reign the Musalmáns first invaded the Deccan.

chandra or Rámdev (1271-1310), the greatest of the Devgiri Yádavs, inscriptions have been found in Dhárwár at Chaudadámpur, Lakshmeshvar, Naregal, and Rattehalli. In 1277 Rámdev's underlord was the Mahámandaleshvar Sáluva Tikkama who had come to Harihar on the Dhárwár-Maisur frontier in the course of a victorious expedition to the south. This expedition had probably been directed against the Hoysalas in consequence of their threatening, or perhaps invading, the southern and south-western part of Rámdev's dominions. In a 1277 inscription Sáluva Tikkama is called the establisher of the Kádamba kings and the overthrower of the Hoysalas. In 1295 Rámdev's Mahápradhán Mallidev was governing the Pulikere or Lakshmeshvar Three Hundred.

Kádambas, 1068-1203.

Besides of these different overlords inscriptions record the names of two local families the Kádambas and the Sindas. With varying overlords, the Kádambas of Banavási and Hángal (1068-1203) were during the eleventh and twelfth centuries the local rulers of Dhárwár. Their copperplates and inscriptions give about twenty-five names of whom six appear to have actually governed.[1] All that is known of these Kádambas has been given in the account of their Western Chálukya overlords.[2]

Sindas, 1100-1180.

During the greater part of the twelfth century (1100-1180) the north-east of Dhárwár was held by the Sindas of Erambarge or Yelburga in the Nizám's country about fifteen miles east of Naregal in North-East Dhárwár. Of two of them Achugi II. (1110-1122) and Permádi I. (1104-1144) inscriptions have been found at Kodikop, Naregal, Ron, and Sudi all in the Ron sub-division. Achugi II.'s inscriptions found at Kodikop ten miles south of Ron is dated 1122. He was then governing the Kisukád[3] or Pattadkal Seventy and several other towns, the chief of which was Nareyangal-Abbegere[4] the chief town of the Nareyangal Twelve and a part of the Belvola Three Hundred. Of Achugi's eldest son and successor Permádi I. (1104-1144) three inscriptions have been found at Naregal and one at Kodikop. Of the Naregal inscriptions two record grants made by village officers before his time. The third is of his own time and bears date 1104. The Kodikop inscription is dated 1144.[5] Till 1294 Rámchandra of Devgiri (1271-1310) was supreme in the Karnátak.[6]

In 1294 Alá-ud-din the nephew of Jelál-ud-din the first Khilji emperor of Delhi (1288-1295) led the first Musalmán army that had ever passed into Southern India, took Devgiri, and compelled Rámchandra or Rámdev to acknowledge the supremacy

[1] The Kádamba successions are Mayurvarma I., Krishnavarma, Nágvarma I., Vishnuvarma, Mrigvarma, Satyavarma, Vijayvarma, Jayvarma I., Nágvarma II., Shántivarma I., Kirttivarma I., Adityavarma, Chattaya Chatta or Chattuga, Jayvarma II. or Jaysinh, Kirttivarma II. or Kirttidev I. (1068-1077), Shántivarma II. Shánta or Shántaya (1088), Taila II. or Tailapa II. (1099-1131), Mayurvarma III. (1131), Mallikárjun I. (1132-1135), Kirttidev II., and Kámdev (1181-1203). Several other Kádamba names, which, though historical, do not fit with this list are given in Mr. Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 87-88. [2] See above, pp. 394-398.

[3] The name Kisukád or Ruby forest, though not now known, evidently marked the country round Kisuvolal or Ruby-city that is Pattada Kisuvolal or Pattadakal in South Bijápur. [4] The modern Naregal about ten miles south-east of Ron.

[5] Details of the Sindas are given in the Bijápur Statistical Account.

[6] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 74.

Chapter VII
History.
THE DELHI EMPERORS, 1294-1347.

of the emperors of Delhi.[1] Between 1295 and 1306 Rámchandra remained unharmed and continued the overlord of the south. In 1306 Alá-ud-din, who in 1295 had usurped the Delhi throne, again sent an army to the south under his general Malik Káfur and again reduced Rámchandra to submission.[2] Rámchandra died in 1310 and his son Shankar was ill-affected to Musalmáns. In the same year (1310) Alá-ud-din's generals Malik Káfur and Khwája Háji passed south, laid waste the Hoysala kingdom, captured Ballála III. (1290-1310), and, after plundering his capital of Dvársamudra, returned to Delhi with rich spoils.[3] In 1312 Malik Káfur entered the Deccan for the fourth time, seized and put Shankar the Devgiri king to death, and laid waste the Karnátak and Mahárashtra from Cheul in Kolába and Dábhol in Ratnágiri in the west as far east as Mudgal and Ráichur in the Nizám's territory.[4] The country north of a line passing through Belgaum and the meeting of the Krishna and Tungbhadra was brought completely under the sway of the Delhi emperor. During Malik Káfur's absence at Delhi Harpál, the son-in-law of Rámchandra of Devgiri, stirred the Deccan to arms and restored the former Devgiri territories to independence. The troubles at Delhi resulting in Alá-ud-din's and Malik Káfur's assassination left Harpál in undisturbed possession of Devgiri till 1318. In 1318 the emperor Mubárik (1317-1321) marched into the Deccan, captured Harpál, and flayed him alive.[5] In 1327 the emperor Muhammad Tughlik (1325-1351) subdued the Karnátak even to the shore of the sea of Umán that is the Indian Ocean.[6] Of the forty years between the first Musalmán invasion of the south in 1294 and the establishment of a new Hindu kingdom at Vijayanagar between 1328 and 1335 no record has been traced. It must have been a time of trouble and disorder, favourable to the rise of the petty robber chiefs, who, when the central authority was weak or broken, always divided and harried the Karnátak. Between 1328 and 1335, with the help of the Shankaráchárya of Shringeri in West Maisur, two brothers, Hakka and Bukka, established a new city on the right bank of the Tungbhadra river, opposite the old city of Ánegundi and about thirty-six miles north-west of Belári. The new city was first called Vidyánagar or the City of Learning, and afterwards Vijayanagar or the City of Victory. Of the origin of the two brothers Hakka and Bukka accounts vary. According to one story they belonged to the Hoysalas of Dvárasamudra, according to a second they were of the family of the Banavási Kadambas, according to a third they were of the Yádav line, and according to a fourth they were shepherds or Kurubars the treasury guards of the family of Varangal in the Godávari delta which was destroyed by the Musalmáns in 1323. Mádhav the head of the Shringeri monastery helped the brothers with money, chose for them the site of the new city, and, in 1335, when the fortifications were completed, placed Hakka on the throne with the title of Harihar Ráy (1335-1350). The spread of Vijayanagar

Vijayanagar, 1335-1344.

[1] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 307.
[2] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 369.
[3] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 375.
[4] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 379.
[5] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 389.
[6] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 413.

Chapter VII. History.

THE BAHMANIS, 1347-1489.

Wars with Vijayanagar, 1375-1417.

formed into large bands of brigands, and during Muhammad's reign as many as eight thousand heads are said to have been sent to Kulbarga and piled near the city gates.[1] Muhammad Sháh's successor Mujáhid Sháh (1375-1378) demanded from Vijayanagar the fort of Bankápur, about thirty-six miles south of Dhárwár, together with other places between the Krishna and the Tungbhadra, a country which Ferishta describes as full of fastnesses and woods.[2] Bukka refused and in the war which followed was driven through the forests to Cape Rámas in Goa. Then fortune changed; Bukka regained what he had lost, and forced the Musalmáns out of the territories to the south of the Krishná. An inscription dated 1379-80 at Dambal in Gadag shows that at that time Harihar II. (1379-1401) of Vijayanagar held Gadag.[3] The success of the Vijayanagar chief was apparently decisive, as the Musalmán historians record about twenty years of peace during the reigns of Máhmud Sháh Bahmani (1378-1397), Gheiás-ud-din (1397), and Shams-ud-din (1397), from 1378 to 1397. This period of peace was followed by a devastation as complete as that caused by the fiercest Musalmán invasion. The great Durga Devi famine began in 1396 and lasted twelve years. Whole districts were emptied of their people, and the hill forts and strong places previously held by the Muhammadans fell into the hands of petty chiefs and leaders of bandits.[4] A second inscription of Harihar II., dated 1399-1400 (S. 1321), is at Makaravalli in Hángal.[5]

War between the Bahmani and Vijayanagar kings again broke out in 1398. In 1406 Feroz Sháh Bahmani (1397-1422), halting near Vijayanagar, detached Mir Fazl Ulla Anju with the Berár division to lay siege to Bankápur the most important fortress in the Karnátak. Mir Fazl Ulla succeeded in taking the fortress. He committed the government of the fort and of its valuable dependencies to Mia Saddoh, and himself returned to the royal camp. In the treaty which followed Dev Ráya (1401-1451) of Vijayanagar agreed to give his daughter in marriage to Feroz Sháh Bahmani, and, to prevent further disputes, to cede the fort of Bankápur as the marriage portion of the Vijayanagar princess.[6] The peace between the rival kingdoms did not last long. In 1417 they were again at war. And in 1423, Ahmad Sháh Bahmani (1422-1435), the successor of Feroz Sháh, overran the Vijayanagar country, and put to death men women and children without mercy. Whenever the number of the slain amounted to twenty thousand, Ahmad Sháh halted three days and made a festival. He also broke down Hindu temples and destroyed Bráhman colleges.[7] Still, in spite of these successes, the Musalmáns had no firm hold of the country south of the Krishna. 1423 and 1425 were years of drought and famine.[8]

In 1443, hearing that Dev Ráya of Vijayanagar had sent his son

---

[1] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 325. [2] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 337.
[3] Jour. Bom. Branch Roy. Soc. XII. 338. [4] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 26.
[5] Jour. Bom. Branch Roy. As. Soc. XII. 340.
[6] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 384; Scott's Deccan, I. 85-86.
[7] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 402. [8] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 405.

power in the Karnátak was rapid. In 1342 the Arab traveller Ibn Batuta found Hariab, that is Hariappa, the overlord of the chiefs of the Kánara coast.[1] Thus, at this time, Dhárwár seems to have been held by Vijayanagar. While Vijayanagar was building, Muhammad Tughlik (1325-1351), pleased with its central position and the strength of its hill-fort, was trying to make Devgiri, or as he now called it Daulatabad the City of Wealth, the capital of India. He thrice forced the people of Delhi to move to Daulatabad, but all his efforts failed. The Deccan continued hostile to his rule. And in the troubles which embittered the latter part of his reign the Deccan nobles more than once rose in revolt. At last in 1347, under the leadership of an Afghán named Zaffir Khán, afterwards known as Alá-ud-din Hasan Gangu, who took the name Bahmani out of respect to a Bráhman patron, the Deccan freed itself from all connection with Upper India. Hasan moved his capital from Daulatabad about 190 miles south-east to Kulbarga and there founded a dynasty, which, under the name of the Bahmani or Kulbarga kings, ruled the Deccan and great part of the Karnátak for nearly a century and a half (1347-1489).

Wars with Vijayanagar, 1369.

About 1351 Alá-ud-din Hasan Gangu (1347-1358), the founder of the Bahmani kingdom, sent a large force into the Karnátak or Kánarese-speaking districts, that is the country south of a line drawn between Kolhápur and Bidar. From the Karnátak the Bahmani general returned with much spoil in money and jewels, besides two hundred elephants and one thousand female singers.[2] Very bloody wars continued between the Vijayanagar and the Bahmani kings, the record of which is probably one-sided, as Ferishta dwells on Musalmán victories and passes over Musalmán defeats. In the earlier wars between Kulbarga and Vijayanagar, it is recorded that victory was always followed by a general slaughter of prisoners, men women and children. In spite of their reverses the Vijayanagar kings do not seem to have lost their hold on Dhárwár and its neighbourhood, as, from an inscription dated 1354-55 (S. 1276), Harihar, on the right bank of the Tungbhadra about twelve miles south-east of Ránebennur, belonged to Bukka the second Vijayanagar king (1350-1379)[3]. In 1369, Muhammad Sháh Bahmani (1358-1375) defeated Bukka, king of Vijayanagar, and continued for three months to massacre the people of the Vijayanagar territory.[4] Muhammad was more successful than his predecessors in reducing the Karnátak chiefs and landlords. He wrested from them much of the accumulated riches of seven hundred years,[5] and so reduced the population that according to Ferishta the Vijayanagar districts did not recover for several ages.[6] The scene of these indiscriminate massacres was the Ráichur-Doáb outside Dhárwár limits, though the east of the district can hardly have escaped.

The weakening of Vijayanagar power and the cruelty of the Musalmán invaders forced large numbers of the people into outlawry. They

[1] Yule's Cathay, II. 416. [2] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 294.
[3] Jour. Bom. Branch Roy. As. Soc. XII. 338. [4] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 316.
[5] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 327. [6] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 327.

Rebellion at Navalgund, 1455-1457.

to besiege Bankápur, Ahmad Sháh Báhmani despatched Malik-ul-Tujár with the Daulatabad division to oppose him, and the Vijayanagar troops were forced to raise the siege.[1] In 1454, Navalgund, about twenty miles north-east of Dhárwár, which is mentioned as the head-quarters of a *sirkár* or province, was the scene of an attempted revolt. Jelál Khán the governor of the province and brother-in-law of Alá-ud-din Bahmani II. (1435-1457), taking advantage of the king's illness, seized a large tract of country round Navalgund which he gave in charge to his son Shikandar Khán. In spite of his illness Alá-ud-din marched against the rebels who fled before him. Shikandar Khán induced Sultán Mahmud Khilji of Málwa and the ruler of Khándesh to enter the Deccan with a large army. Against this force Alá-ud-din marched in person, but before the armies met Shikandar's allies withdrew as they had moved on the assurance that Alá-ud-din was dead. With two thousand Afgháns and Rajputs Shikandar fled to Navalgund. Khwája Máhmud Gawán pursued him, besieged Bankápur, and on a promise of pardon persuaded him to surrender. On going to court he was received into favour, and in 1455 Navalgund was restored to him. In 1457, on the accession of the new king Humáyun Sháh (1457-1461), disappointed at not receiving the government of Tailangana, Shikandar and his father began to raise troops at Navalgund, and defeated Khán Jehán the governor of Berár who was sent against them. After Khán Jehán's defeat the king marched against the rebels, in the hope of inducing them to submit. But Shikandar Khán, relying on the attachment and bravery of his troops, with eight thousand Deccanis and Rajputs marched out to offer battle, and by night surprised the king's camp with success. In consideration of their close relationship and former friendship the king sent Shikandar word that in spite of his crime in appearing in arms against his sovereign, if he would surrender, he would grant him a free pardon and confer on him an estate in Daulatabad. To this Shikandar Khán returned an insolent answer. Humáyun ordered the line to attack, and Shikandar repeatedly repulsed the vigorous charges of the royal army. The action remained uncertain, till Máhmud Gawán with the Bijápur division and Khwája Jehán Turk with the army of Tailangana at the same time charged Shikandar's right and left wings and the rebels began to give way. The king, observing their confusion, supported the attack from the centre with five hundred bowmen and five hundred spearmen, at the head of whom, mounted on an elephant, he charged the enemy. His advance was so stoutly opposed that the king found himself nearly deserted by his followers who retreated in confusion, while Shikandar Khán headed an attack on the king. As Shikandar drew near, the elephant on which Humáyun was mounted seized him with his trunk, dragged him from his horse, and dashed him on the ground. His followers unable to check themselves, in their charge rode over him and crushed him to death. On the loss of their leader the rebel army

[1] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 433; Waring's Maráthás, 20.

Chapter VII. History.

THE BAHMANIS, 1347-1489.

Capture of Goa, 1470.

fied; and the king, rallying his troops, pursued the fugitives with great slaughter. Navalgund, to which Shikandar's father had retired, was besieged. At the end of a week Jelál Khán submitted. His life was spared, but he ended his days in close confinement.[1] About this time, perhaps in the troubles which accompanied Shikandar Khán's revolt, Vijayanagar succeeded in regaining Bankápur.[2] In 1470 Máhmud Gawán, who held the office of prime minister as well as the government of Bijápur, attacked the seaboard territories of the Vijayanagar king and took Goa. In 1472, at the instigation of the Vijayanagar king, the Hindu chief of Bankápur and Virkam Ráy Rája of Belgaum sent troops to retake Goa.[3] The attempt failed, and, in retaliation, the Musalmáns besieged and took the fort of Belgaum. In 1472 and 1473 no rain fell, and no grain was sown; many died and many left the country. In the third year, when rain fell, scarcely any farmers remained to till the land.[4]

BIJÁPUR KINGS 1489-1686.

The capture of Belgaum and its dependencies brought the whole of the Bombay Karnátak, except the southern portion of Dhárwár, under Musalmán rule. But the ascendancy of the Bahmanis was now at an end. In 1489, Yusuf Adil Sháh, one of the leading nobles of Máhmud Sháh Bahmani II.'s court, declared himself in dependent and seized Bijápur and all the Bahmani possessions in Dhárwár. About ten years before the establishment of Bijápur power (1479), perhaps from the want of success of the last of its members, Mallikárjuna (1451-1465) and Virupáksha (1465-1479) the first dynasty of Vijayanagar kings came to an end. Narsingh, who according to one account was the slave of the last king Virupáksha, according to a second account was a chief of Tailingana, and according to a third account was of a Tulav or South Kánara family, established himself at Vijayanagar. In 1508, Narsingh of Vijayanagar was succeeded by his son Krishna Ráya, a most successful and longlived king, who continued to rule probably till 1534. Krishna seems to have owed much of his success to the friendship of the Portuguese, who, arriving on the Malabár coast in 1498, waged a naval war on Arabs, Turks, and all Musalmán traders. Their rivalry with Bijápur induced them to cultivate friendly relations with Vijayanagar whom they supplied with ammunition, horses, and artillerymen. In 1510, Yusuf Adil Sháh, the founder of the Bijápur dynasty, died. Acting under the advice of their Hindu ally the chief of Honávar in North Kánara, the Portuguese suddenly attacked Goa and took it with little trouble. It was recovered by Bijápur in May of the same year, but before the close of 1510 (November 25th) was again taken and permanently held by the Portuguese.[5] The success of the Portuguese was most welcome to many of the Hindu chiefs. In 1512 an embassy came to Dalboquerque from Vengápur, that is Bankápur, to congratulate him on his success at Goa. The ambassadors brought sixty beautifully

[1] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 447.-456; Scott's Deccan, I. 130-136.
[2] Compare Briggs' Ferishta, II. 491.
[3] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 491.
[4] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 494.
[5] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 34.

Success of Vijayanagar, 1520.

dressed horses and asked that they might have the management of the lands of Goa and that they might have 300 horses a year. Dalboquerque gave them the horses, because their chief was a useful ally as his land was a veritable and safe road to Vijayanagar, and as his people were skilful saddlemakers.[1] About 1520 Krishna Ráya completely defeated Ismáil Adil Sháh (1510-1534) and restored the kingdom of Vijayanagar to its former limits.[2] The absence of any Musalmán successes for several years after Krishna Ráya's victory may be gathered from Ferishta's narrative, which passes in silence over the sixteen years between 1520 and 1535. Among the people of Dhárwár the rule of Krishna Ráya and his brother Achyuta Ráya, for the two names always go together, is remembered as a time of happiness and ideal government. Though, as the best known members of the dynasty, Krishna and Achyuta have probably gained a traditional credit for works which were not theirs, the brothers seem to have had a great share in constructing the system of water works for which Dhárwár and the neighbouring country are famous. They also seem rightly to have the credit of introducing the *Rái Rekha Már* survey which formed the basis of all later revenue settlements.[3] The only one of Krishna Ráya's inscriptions found in Dhárwár is a copper-plate grant dated 1512-13 (S. 1434), giving over the village of Tirmalapura to Timmanaya the son of Ghatika-Narsingh the astrologer of Rattehalli and Kod.[4]

After the death of Krishna Ráya which probably happened in 1534, Achyuta Ráya seems to have gone on reigning till 1542. Three inscriptions of Achyuta Ráya have been found within Dhárwár limits, two at Gadag, and one at Annigeri. All are dated 1538-39 (S. 1460). After Achyuta Ráya's death, though he kept representatives of the old family as the nominal heads of the state, the real control was seized by Rám Rája, who is said to have been the son of Krishna Ráya's minister. Rám Rája was an able and a vigorous ruler. In 1547 he made a treaty with Dom João de Castro the Portuguese viceroy, with the object of encouraging trade and of resisting the power of Bijápur. In this treaty Hubli or Obeli is mentioned as a

---

[1] Commentaries of Dalboquerque, III. 246, 247.

[2] Rice's Mysore, I. 230. Of this great victory the Portuguese historian Faria-y-Souza (Kerr's Voyages, VI. 179), probably from Vijayanagar sources, gives the following details: In 1520, Krishna Ráya, king of Vijayanagar, collected 35,000 horse, 730,000 foot, and 586 elephants with 12,000 water-carriers and 20,000 dancing-girls, to recover the great castle of Rachol, that is Ráichur, which Bijápur had taken from him. Adil Sháh came to relieve Ráichur, but was defeated and forced to fly, forty Portuguese in his army fighting with great valour. Krishna Ráya pressed the siege but with no success, till Christopher de Fiqueredo and twenty Portuguese came with horses. Fiqueredo asked the king if he might attempt to assault the fort. Krishna Ráya agreed, and, the second assault being well backed by the Vijayanagar troops, was successful. Soon after Adil Sháh sent an embassy to Krishna Ráya, asking for the restoration of prisoners and plunder. Krishna Ráya agreed on condition that Adil Sháh would acknowledge his supreme authority as emperor of Kanára and come to kiss his foot. This degrading condition was accepted but its performance was delayed. Meanwhile Ray de Melo, who commanded in Goa, taking advantage of the decline of Bijápur power, took part of the country near the isle of Goa.

[3] Captain, afterwards Sir G. Wingate in Bom. Gov. Sel. CLV. 74-75.

[4] Trans. Bom. Branch Roy. As. Soc. XII. 342.

Overthrow of Vijayanagar, 1665.

place of trade in saltpetre and iron for the Bijápur country.[1] Though able and successful, Rám Rája was so overbearing to his Musalmán neighbours that the four Musalmán powers, Bijápur Golkonda Ahmadnagar and Bidar, joined in a league against him. In 1565, at the great battle fought on the banks of the Krishna, eighteen miles south of Tálikoti in the Muddebihál sub-division of Bijápur, Rám Rája was defeated and slain, and Vijayanagar taken and sacked.[2] Jealousy between Ahmadnagar and Bijápur, the two leading Musalmán powers, prevented the transfer of the Vijayanagar territories to Musalmán rule. Rám Rája's brother was allowed to hold much of the Karnátak and for some time many Vijayanagar feudatories maintained their independence.[3] In 1570 the feeling of rivalry between Ahmadnagar and Bijápur grew less keen. With the Kálikat chief they formed a great alliance against the Portuguese, and agreed that if successful Ahmadnagar should keep the north Portuguese possessions and Bijápur overrun the south. The splendid courage of the Portuguese defenders of Cheul and Goa defeated the efforts both of the Ahmadnagar and of the Bijápur armies.[4] Still the alliance led to a more friendly feeling between Ahmadnagar and Bijápur, and in 1573 Ali Adil Sháh (1557-1579) the Bijápur king was able to arrange that while Ahmadnagar spread its power northwards, he should be left free to conquer the Karnátak. In 1573 he marched against Dhárwár, one of the strongest forts in the Karnátak, which was held by an officer of the late Rám Rája who had assumed independence. The fort fell after a siege of six months and the surrounding country was annexed to Bijápur.[5]

Siege of Bankápur, 1575.

The Bijápur king next marched against Bankápur, the capital of Velápa Ráya, formerly a servant of the Vijayanagar kings, but now independent. After vain appeals for help to Venkatádry the brother of his former master, Velápa Ráya defended himself with such vigour that he nearly forced the Bijápur troops to raise the siege. The Musalmáns were specially annoyed by night attacks from the Karnátak infantry, who, valuing their lives but little, entered the tents at night naked and covered with oil and stabbed the Musalmán soldiers in their sleep. This novel form of attack caused a panic among the Musalmáns and their sufferings were increased by the activity of the enemy in cutting off their supplies. But in Mustapha Khán the Bijápur army had a good commander. With the help of his Bergi, that is apparently Badagi or northern that is Maratha-Telugu cavalry, he reopened his lines of communication, and by placing a strong guard of sentries round the camp checked the night attacks. The siege was pressed, and after a year and three months the Musalmáns were rewarded by the surrender of Bankápur.[6] The Bijápur king ordered a superb temple within the fort to be destroyed, and himself laid the first

---

[1] Subsidies, II. 255, 257.
[2] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 126.
[3] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 131.
[4] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 521, 523; Faria-y-Souza in Kerr's Voyages, VI. 423; DaCunha's Chaul and Bassein, 49, 54.
[5] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 135.
[6] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 147-48; Waring's Maráthás, 40.

stone of a mosque which was built upon the foundation. Many towns and districts were conferred upon Mustapha Khán, and till his assassination in Bankápur in 1579 the whole of the conquered country remained under his management.[1] According to Hindu accounts the power of the Vijayanagar kings continued at least in name till 1584. Though in 1593 the Hindus for a time regained Bankápur,[2] 1575, the year of the fall of Bankápur, may be taken as the date when Dhárwár came under Bijápur rule. It continued under their sway for about a hundred years, till the capture of Bijápur by the Emperor Aurangzeb in 1686. Of these hundred years almost no details are recorded. But compared with the ten years of no-government before it began and the hundred and twenty years of misrule after it ended, the Bijápur rule seems to have been a time of fair government and of prosperity. In the latter part of the seventeenth century, before Bijápur was weakened by the attacks of Shiváji, Dhárwár seems to have been full of villages of weavers and Hubli to have been a place of much wealth and of great trade. In 1673, while ravaging Bijápur territory, a Marátha army under Ánaji Dattu plundered the rich mercantile town of Hubli, the centre of a number of manufacturing villages. The booty exceeded any previous Maratha plunder. Merchants of all nations were pillaged; and the Bijápur troops, which had been stationed for the defence of the town, destroyed any property which the Maráthás had left. The English factory at Kárwár, which was said to have employed 50,000 weavers in the Dhárwár villages, had a broker at Hubli to sell all kinds of imports and gather the cloth intended for England. The Hubli factory was plundered, and, according to English account, goods were lost worth about £2773 (7894 *pagodas*). The English claimed compensation, but Shiváji declared that, except some petty damage represented by him at about £70 (200 *Ps.*), his troops had done them no harm.[3] In 1674 Shiváji fortified Nargund thirty miles north of Dhárwár, and took Dhárwár.[4] About the same time (1673) Abdul Karim Khán, the ancestor of the present Nawáb of Sávanur, on behalf of Bijápur, was appointed chief captain against the Maráthás and governor of the province or *sarkár* of Bankápur, which, under Bijápur, included sixteen districts or *parganás*, the chief among them being Nasrabad or Dhárwár and Gadag.[5] In 1685, Sultán Muázzim, Aurangzeb's son, marched in the name of the Delhi emperor to regain the south-west portions of the Bijápur kingdom which Shiváji had overrun. He took Hubli and Dhárwár, a place of respectability and strength, and placed garrisons in them. But in spite of this success he had to withdraw towards Ahmadnagar, as his army was greatly reduced by famine and pestilence.[6] In (1686, 15th October), on the capture of Bijápur by Aurangzeb, the rest of the Bijápur territories in Dhárwár

Sack of Hubli, 1673.

Fall of Bijápur, 1686.

[1] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 135-139; West's Southern Marátha Country, 11-12.
[2] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 180.
[3] Orme's Historical Fragments, 34-36, 208; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 115.
[4] Stokes' Belgaum, 42; Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 173.
[5] Orme's Historical Fragments, 286; Stokes' Belgaum, 42.
[6] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 148; Stokes' Belgaum, 43; Orme's Historical Fragments, 144; Moor's Narrative of Captain Little's Detachment, 42.

Chapter VII. History.

SÁVANUR NAWÁB, 1700.

passed to the Moghals. The Moghal tenure of the country was purely military and did not last long. Abdul Ráhuf Khán, son of Abdul Karim Khán, the Bijápur governor of Bankápur, entered the emperor's service and received a large share of the Bombay Karnátak. Abdul Ráhuf at first made his head-quarters at Bankápur, but he afterwards moved to Sávanur about six miles to the north-east. He left the revenue management of his territories to the hereditary Hindu officers, of whom the chief were the *desáis* of Navalgund, Shirhatti, Hávanur, and Dambal.[1] The death of Aurangzeb in 1707 led to the establishment of two Marátha principalities under two of Shiváji's grandsons, Sátára under Sháhu and Kolhápur under Sambháji. In 1719 through the influence of the Syeds who deposed the Emperor Ferokshir (1713-1719) Sháhu received three imperial grants for the *chauth* or one-fourth and the *sardeshmukhi* or one-tenth of the revenues of the six Deccan provinces, among them Bijápur which included Dhárwár. The third grant was the *svaráj* or home rule of sixteen districts, the only one of which within Dhárwár limits was Gadag.[2] After this great cession of territory Fatesing Bhonsle, Rája of Akalkot about twenty-three miles south-east of Sholápur, was appointed to collect the tribute and revenue due from the Karnátak. In 1723 the Nizám was created viceroy of the Deccan and assumed independence. In those parts of the Bombay Karnátak which were not included in the Marátha home-rule or *svaráj*, or had not been wholly ceded in grant, the Nizám divided the revenue with the Maráthás. As viceroy of the Deccan he interfered to suppress disturbances in the Bijápur Karnátak, and appointed a new governor or *subhedár* to that district.[3] Though Sháhu had received the imperial grant of a large share of the Karnátak, and though his claims to levy a fourth and a tenth of the revenues of all lands formerly held by the Moghals had been admitted, so great was the local power of the chiefs of Kolhápur and Sávanur that Fatesing Bhonsle, the Marátha general, scarcely ventured to cross the Krishna. In 1726, on the pretext of levying his one-fourth and one-tenth shares of the revenue, Peshwa Bájiráv (1720-1740), with a large army under Fatesing Bhonsle, marched into the Karnátak. They plundered as far as Seringápatam, but made no attempt to establish their power.[4] In 1730, under a treaty between the chiefs of Sátára and Kolhápur, though Sháhu and the Peshwa continued to exercise sovereignty over it except some forts, the country between the Krishna and the Tungbhadra was assigned to Kolhápur. During these changes the Sávanur Nawáb, who, though no longer dependent on the Moghals, was subordinate to the Nizám, acquired so large a territory that in 1746 he ventured to resist the authority of the farmer of the Marátha dues from the country between the Krishna and the Tungbhadra. This brought on him a Marátha invasion against which he was unable to cope. In 1747 he had to agree to a treaty by which he yielded to the Peshwa the whole of the present sub-divisions of Dhárwár, Navalgund, and Gadag, and parts of Ránebennur and

[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 44.
[2] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 200.
[3] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 210, 250.
[4] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 218.

Kod. He was allowed to keep Hubli, Bankápur, Hángal, and other districts together with his family possession the fort of Bankápur.[1] It is doubtful whether the terms of this treaty were fully carried out. In 1755, while Peshwa Báláji's army was encamped on the north bank of the Krishna on its march to the South Karnátak, an officer of the Peshwa, formerly in M. Bussy's service, deserted the Peshwa and joined Abdul Hakim Khán the Nawáb of Sávanur, who had about this time thrown off his allegiance to the Nizám. The Peshwa demanded the deserter's surrender, and as the Nawáb refused to give him up, the Maratha army crossed the Krishna, and attacked Sávanur. The prime minister of Haidarabad, who was at this time in league with the Peshwa, observing so formidable an advance of Maratha troops, gathered an army of observation. The Peshwa sent agents to declare that he had no intention to make war on the Nizám, that the object of his advance was to reduce the Nawáb of Sávanur their common enemy whose power, he said, was formidable both to the Nizám and to the Maráthás, and if not crushed would spread over the whole Karnátak.[2] Accordingly a force from Haidarabad joined the Maráthás, and, under Bussy's directions, the artillery opened so heavy a fire on Sávanur that after a siege of three months the Nawáb was obliged to yield.[3] To secure the withdrawal of the Maratha troops, the Nawáb, in addition to a large cash payment, to raise which he was forced to pledge Bankápur fort to Holkar, was compelled to cede eleven more districts, among them Hubli and Misrikota. In return he received some districts in Ránebennur and the sub-division of Parasgad in Belgaum. The Peshwa seems not to have taken the newly acquired territory under his direct management, but to have left most of it to the local *desáis* whom he made responsible for the revenue.[4]

War with Haidar, 1764-65.

In 1762 Haidar Ali deposed the Hindu king of Maisur and usurped the sole authority. By 1763 Haidar's conquests had spread far north of the Tungbhadra. The friendship of Sávanur became of importance to Haidar, and, through his general Fazl Ulláh, he suggested to the Sávanur chief Abdul Hakim Khán the advantages of an alliance. Next year (1764), as the Sávanur chief refused to separate from the Maráthás, Haidar marched against Sávanur, and, after some resistance, reduced the Nawáb to submission, while Fazl Ulláh Khán took Dhárwár and overran the country as far north as the Krishna.[5] In Poona great preparations were made to repel Haidar's invasion. An army under Peshwa Mádhavráo (1762-1773) marched towards the Krishna. Gopálráo Patvardhan, who was sent in advance, crossed the Krishna but was defeated by Fazl Ulláh. In May 1764, when the Peshwa approached with an army of 30,000 horse and as many foot, Fazl Ulláh, leaving a strong garrison in Dhárwár, fell back on Haidar's army, which, quitting its

[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 46 ; West's Southern Maratha Country, 22.
[2] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 287, 292 ; Orme's Military Transactions of the British in India, I. 425-427 ; Transactions in the Maratha Empire (1803), 87.
[3] The artillery practice during this siege so astonished the people that the year when one and a quarter *lákhs* of balls were fired against Sávanur is still a local era. Bom. Gov Sel. CXIII. 210.
[4] West's Southern Maratha Country, 23.
[5] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 330 ; Wilks' South of India, I. 459.

Chapter VII. History.

THE PESHWÁS, 1752-1776.

War with Haidar, 1764-65.

entrenched camp at Annavati in Maisur about twenty-five miles south of Bankápur, and advancing towards Sávanur, took a strong position near Rattehalli about thirty-six miles south of Sávanur. Here, when joined by Fazl Ulláh, the whole force under Haidar's command amounted to about 20,000 horse and 40,000 foot, of which one-half were disciplined infantry. The Peshwa gaining through his cavalry correct information of the strength of Haidar's position, determined not to attack it, and instead employed his troops in driving out Haidar's garrisons from the towns and villages north of the Varda. In the hope of bringing on a general engagement, Haidar moved with 20,000 men intending to retire and draw the Maráthás towards the strong position which Fazl Ulláh held with the main body of the army. The Maráthás threw out a few bodies of skirmishers, who retiring as he advanced drew Haidar forward, until their parties, always retiring but gradually thickening, at last formed solid masses of horse, which gradually moved round between Haidar and his camp, and forced him, not without heavy loss, to change his feigned retirement into a real retreat. He then fell back on his entrenched position at Annavati. The Peshwa followed; and after a few days appeared to be moving columns to invest his camp. Haidar, fancying he saw a chance of cutting off one of the Marátha columns, moved out with 2000 infantry, 1000 horse, and four light guns. He was again enticed to advance too far and was completely surrounded. The speed of their horses saved Haidar and about fifty of his cavalry; the rest of the corps was destroyed. The approach of the south-west monsoon (June) put a stop to further hostilities. The Peshwa cantoned for the rains at Narindra, about five miles north of Dhárwár, billetting his horsemen among all the villages within a radius of twenty miles. As soon as the season allowed (October), the Peshwa laid siege to Dhárwár. He succeeded in breaching the wall and the town capitulated. The whole country north of the Varda was now in his possession, except Mundgod in North Kánara, and this, when the weather cleared, he speedily reduced. Mádhavráo Peshwa made over the command of the army to his uncle Raghunáthráo or Rághoba, who, in 1765, pursued Haidar across the Tungbhadra and forced him to agree to a treaty under which, besides paying £320,000 (Rs. 32 *lákhs*), he gave up all claims on Sávanur.[1] Dhárwár remained under the Maráthás till 1773, when, taking advantage of the troubles at Poona caused by the death of Mádhavráo Peshwa (1762-1773), Haidar sent a strong detachment under his son Tipu to recover the districts conquered by the Maráthás in 1764.[2] Haidar entered into close relations with Raghunáthráo the uncle of the murdered Peshwa Náráyanráo, acknowledged him head of the Maráthás, and agreed to support him. In 1776, according to Maisur accounts, in return for the gift of £160,000 (Rs. 16 *lákhs*), Rághoba agreed that Haidar should take and hold the country to the south of the Krishna.[3]

[1] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 330-332; Wilks' South of India, I. 461-464.
[2] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 363.
[3] Wilks' South of India, II. 173; Grant Duff (History, 400) doubts if Rághoba ever gave such an invitation.

Haidar crossed the Tungbhadra, took Bankápur and Sávanur, and continued to push northwards till the rains (June 1776) stopped active operations. He returned to the south, leaving a chosen body of troops in Bankápur with directions to watch, and as far as possible prevent supplies passing to the Dhárwár garrison which had not been reduced. Meanwhile the Poona ministers opposed to Raghunáthráo obtained from the Nizám a promise to act with them against Haidar. Before the joint Márátha and Nizám armies could march, a small force under Konherráo Patvardhan and Pándurang, was (1776) sent to drive Haidar's troops out of Sávanur. Muhammad Ali, the Maisur general and Rághoba's agent in command of a body of auxiliary Maráthás, came up with the troops under the Patvardhan at Sansi about twenty-five miles south-east of Dhárwár. Finding the Poona force drawn up in order of battle, Muhammad Ali began the action with his cavalry. He feigned a check, and, retiring in apparent disorder, was thoughtlessly followed by the Maráthás, who, confident of victory, pursued in headlong haste till the fugitive Musalmáns suddenly disappeared through openings in a powerful reserve. At the same time a body of men in ambush poured into the flanks of the Maráthás a tremendous fire of grape and musketry. The slaughter was serious and the confusion hopeless. Muhammad Ali made a determined charge at the head of his cavalry, and, completing the rout, continued the pursuit for nine miles, and captured many of the Maráthás, among them their leader Pándurang.[1] After this defeat, in 1777, the main body of the Márátha army of about 30,000 men under Parashurám Bháu, the most distinguished member of the Patvardhan family, and the Nizám's army about 40,000 strong under Ibráhim Khán, marched against Haidar. The Nizám's forces were bought off and the Maráthás recrossed the Krishna without risking an action. This left the field open to Haidar, who in 1778 took Dhárwár after a protracted siege. After the fall of Dhárwár, Bádámi and Jalihál in South Bijápur were taken, and Haidar was master of the whole country south of the Krishna.[2] He left Nargund, Navalgund, Dambal, and Shirhatti, and other strong places in the hands of their estate-holders or *desáis* on their acknowledging his supremacy and agreeing to pay tribute.[3] The Poona ministers were too fully occupied with the war against Raghunáthráo and the English to allow them to make a serious attempt to recover the Karnátak. Haidar used this interval to strengthen his hold on the country by a close alliance with Hakim Khán the Nawáb of Sávanur. In 1779, the eldest son of the Nawáb was married to Haidar's eldest daughter, and Haidar's second son was married to the Nawáb's daughter.[4] These alliances led Haidar to support the Nawáb in nominally recovering almost all the possessions which his father had in 1756 ceded to the Maráthás. From this time till Haidar's death in 1782 Hakim Khán prospered.[5]

---

[1] Wilks' South of India, II. 179; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 400.
[2] Wilks' South of India, II. 186. [3] Wilks' South of India, II. 187.
[4] Wilks' South of India, II. 206. [5] Transactions in the Márátha Empire (1803), 86.

Chapter VII. History. MAISUR, 1776-1792.

In 1779, as the Poona ministers were anxious to secure his aid in driving the English out of India, Haidar's right to the Marátha territories south of the Krishna was admitted on payment of a yearly sum of £110,000 (Rs. 11,00,000) to represent the Marátha share of the revenue. Afterwards, when the war with the English was nearly over and when the treaty of Sálbái (1782) was in progress, Nána Phadnavis, the Peshwa's minister at Poona, tried to persuade Haidar to restore the territory north of the Tungbhadra, threatening, if Haidar refused, to join the English in attacking Maisur. But the rivalry between Nána and Mahádáji Sindia and the death of Haidar in 1782 prevented Nána from gaining his object.[1] After Haidar's death, Nána Phadnavis called on Tipu to make good the arrears of tribute. Tipu acknowledged that tribute was due, but evaded paying it.[2] A conference was arranged between Nána and the Nizám to form plans for recovering the territory to the south of the Krishna. But they failed to come to an agreement and Tipu remained in possession. The Sávanur Nawáb, who after Haidar's death (1782) had gone over to the Maráthás, incurred Tipu's wrath, who drove his family out and forced him to take refuge at Poona.[3]

Siege of Nargund, 1785.

In 1785, by demanding a higher tribute, Tipu estranged Venkatráo, the chief of Nargund who had been his tributary since 1778. As by himself he was unable to withstand Tipu, Venkatráo sought the help of the Bombay Government, and, as they were unable to assist him, he turned to the court of Poona. When Tipu pressed Venkatráo, Nána Phadnavis interfered. He declared that Tipu had no right to exact more than the former tribute, that landholders on the transfer of districts were liable to no additional payments, and that the rights of Bráhman landholders except when guilty of treason were always respected. Tipu replied by sending two bodies of troops to demand more tribute than the Nargund chief could pay, and so give him a pretext for reducing the fort. In March 1785, when news reached Poona that the siege of Nargund was begun, a body of Maráthás was sent from Poona to relieve Venkatráo. Before the Poona detachment arrived, want of water had forced the Maisur troops to raise the siege. They were still in the neighbourhood, and after some skirmishing compelled the Maráthás to retire, took the fort of Rámdurg about seventeen miles north of Nargund, and resumed the siege of Nargund. On Tipu's assurance that only the regular tribute would be exacted, the Marátha army recrossed the Krishna. The siege was pressed with redoubled vigour, and, on the strength of terms promised by Tipu, the Nargund chief capitulated. In spite of Tipu's promises, when the fort was taken, the chief was seized, he and his family were sent into captivity, and his daughter was taken into Tipu's harem. Kittur, a fort in Belgaum about forty miles west of Nargund, was also seized, and both Kittur and Nargund were garrisoned by Maisur troops. Tipu forcibly circumcised many Hindus of the territory south of the Krishna, and 2000 Bráhman disciples of Shankaráchárya destroyed themselves to avoid the disgrace.[4] In

[1] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 457. [2] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 458.
[3] Transactions in the Marátha Empire (1803), 88.
[4] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 466-67.

1786 the Maráthás and the Nizám formed an offensive alliance against Tipu, and agreed to begin operations by taking from him the country between the Krishna and the Tungbhadra. A detachment of 25,000 troops, chiefly horse under Tukáji Holkar and Ganeshpant Beheri another Marátha commander, was sent to drive Tipu's garrisons from the neighbourhood of Kittur and to act against the Maisur general Burhán-ud-din at Kittur. At the same time the confederate army under Haripant advanced and laid siege to Bádámi in South Bijápur, which, after a furious and persevering attack, they succeeded in taking. Holkar's detachment drove all Tipu's posts from the open country in the neighbourhood of Kittur, but failed in their attack on Kittur fort. Holkar then made one march of upwards of sixty miles to Sávanur with the object of seizing Tipu's chief banker Rágvendra Náik. Rágvendra succeeded in escaping, but two or three other smaller bankers fell into Holkar's hands from whom he exacted a ransom of £20,000 (Rs. 2 *lákhs*). At Sávanur Holkar was joined by Hakim Khán the Nawáb, who, though closely related to Tipu, had been so badly treated by him that he willingly sided with the Maráthás. Holkar's and the Nawáb's combined force repulsed an attack by Tipu's general Burhán-ud-din, who was forced to retire to Jerianvatti on the Varda.[1] The confederate army under Haripant, after the fall of Bádámi and the seizure of the other forts, found itself opposed in the Nizám's territory by Tipu himself, who, with the greater part of his army, had crossed the Tungbhadra in basket boats. As grain and forage were extremely scarce, to procure supplies as well as to draw Tipu into the plain country, the Marátha general marched to Sávanur. Tipu followed and encamped in a strong position within six miles of the confederates, keeping the town of Sávanur between the camps.[2] In this situation both parties remained for fifteen days. On the first of October Tipu made preparations for a serious attack. He divided his force into four columns, the left centre commanded by himself; and, after the evening meal, moved off making a considerable detour with the object of delivering a combined attack on the enemy's left and centre. It was arranged that about an hour after midnight, when the head of his own column reached the point chosen for attack, he should fire a signal gun, which was to be answered by the heads of the three other divisions, and the attack was at once to begin. The night was dark and rainy. On reaching a small outpost Tipu's column was challenged; and Tipu, as if bent on letting the enemy know of his approach, ordered the outpost to be fired at. He again advanced, and when near the camp fired the signal gun, but listened in vain for a reply. After much delay and anxiety he fired another signal, which was answered by only one gun. He moved on, and entering the camp a little before dawn, found himself with no more than three hundred men. In the dark and wet the heads of all the columns except his own had lost their way, and from the same cause each column had broken into several divisions, which were all wandering at random in the dark.

[1] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 470. [2] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 471.

Chapter VII. History.

MAISUR, 1776-1792.

War with the Maráthás, 1786-87.

As the light strengthened, all were within view, and Tipu collected and arranged his troops. He found the Marátha camp empty and their army drawn up on a height. They began to cannonade Tipu's force, and he, according to his own account, ordered no guns of any size to fire in return. The confederates, thinking their assailants were without large guns, advanced carelessly against them and were repulsed with heavy loss. The accuracy of this account is doubtful, but there is no question that the day ended in Tipu's favour as the confederates fell back on a position whose left rested on the fort of Sávanur.[1]

The scarcity of forage and the weakness of their position induced Haripant to leave Sávanur and the Nawáb fell back with him ten miles. Tipu took Sávanur, but lay inactive till the Muharram when he retired to Bankápur to hold the festival. In his absence Haripant without opposition breached, stormed, and took Shirhatti, a fortified town twenty miles north-east of Sávanur. While at Sávanur Tipu sent a messenger, nominally to treat of peace, but, according to his own statement and as the event showed, with the object of throwing the enemy off their guard.[2] On pretence of forage Tipu moved and made a successful night attack on the confederate camp and secured the splendid equipage of the Nizám's general and 500 camels which carried it.[3] In 1787, fearing that the English were about to take part against him, Tipu made a treaty with the Maráthás ceding them Nargund and in return receiving back the other towns and districts which the Maráthás had taken. Tipu also agreed to pay the Marátha share of the revenue and to restore to the Nawáb of Sávanur the territory which he held before his son's marriage with Haidar's daughter. The Nawáb dreading Tipu's treachery accompanied the Maráthás to Poona.[4]

Tipu never meant to fulfil these engagements. As soon as the Maráthás had recrossed the Krishna, the Maisur troops retook Kittur. The Maráthás were much annoyed by Tipu's faithlessness, and, as both the English and the Nizám were interested in preventing the increase of Tipu's power, in 1790, when his

---

[1] Wilks' South of India, II. 551-552.

[2] The herald was charged to deliver to Tukáji Holkar in the absence of Nizám Ali a speech to the following effect: 'You have obtained experience in feats of arms and are distinguished among the chiefs for superior valour. Now that war has begun its destructive career and thousands are doomed to fall, why should we longer witness the causeless effusion of human blood? It is better that you and I should singly descend into the field of combat, let the Almighty determine who is the conqueror and who the vanquished, and let that result terminate the contest. Or, if you have not sufficient confidence in your own single arm, take to your aid from one to ten men of your own selection, and I will meet you with equal numbers. Such was the practice in the days of our Prophet, and, though long discontinued, I desire to renew that species of warfare. But if prudence should dictate your declining the second proposition also, let the two armies be drawn out, select your weapons, and let us chief opposed to chief, horseman to horseman, and foot-soldier to foot-soldier engage in pitched battle, and let the vanquished become the subjects to the victors.' To this Holkar is said to have replied that, 'The passion for fighting had not descended to him from his ancestors, but rather the hereditary trade of flying, plundering, burning, and destroying, and the petty warfare which involves little danger.' Wilks' South of India, II. 555-556.

[3] Wilks' South of India, II. 556.

[4] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 472.

attacks on Trávankor gave the English grounds for acting against Tipu, an offensive alliance was formed against him by the English, the Maráthás, and the Nizám. After preliminaries were settled the Marátha force was placed under Parashurám Bháu Patvardhan whom the English engaged to supply with a detachment of British troops. The 8th and 11th battalions of Native Infantry, one company of European and two companies of Native Artillery, with six field pieces, which was the force named to act with the Maráthás, sailed from Bombay under the command of Captain Little about the 20th of May 1790. They disembarked at Sangameshvar in Ratnágiri on the 29th of May, reached the top of the Ámba pass by the 10th June, and arrived at a village not far from Tásgaon, about fifty miles east of the Ámba pass on the 18th, where they joined Parashurám's army.[1] The combined force did not cross the Krishna till the 11th of August. As they advanced they found no difficulty in driving out Tipu's soldiery, and the country was rapidly occupied until they came to the village of Narindra, about five miles north of Dhárwár. When they reduced Narindra the Marátha force was daily joined by small parties till the whole amounted to 25,000 horse, 15,000 foot, and fifteen pieces of heavy cannon twenty-four pounders and upwards. There was a retinue of women, including every sort of dancing and singing girls, who numbered as many as the fighting men, and there were ten times as many followers and fifteen times as many animals. The Marátha camp was full of traders and craftsmen as busily employed as if they were at Poona and at peace.[2] The fort of Dhárwár was held for Tipu by Badr-ul-Zamán Khán, one of his most trusted generals, with a garrison of seven thousand regulars and three thousand irregulars armed with matchlocks and swords. The combined English and Marátha army appeared before the fort on the 18th of September. Till the 30th of October nothing of importance was done. On the 30th of October the English detachment attacked a body of the enemy who were posted outside the walls of the town. The enemy were driven back with the loss of three guns and a large number of killed and wounded. The loss on the side of the English was ten men killed and fifty-nine wounded. After this attack nothing further took place till the 13th of December when the British force attacked and took the town with a loss of sixty-two English and several hundred Maráthás killed and wounded. The town was re-occupied by the enemy but they were driven out and the town was plundered by the Maráthás. As the siege made little progress, on the 28th of December, the British contingent was strengthened by the 2nd Bombay Regiment and the ninth battalion of Native Infantry from Bombay under Lieutenant-Colonel Frederick and afterwards by a corps about 300 strong, fifty of them Europeans of all nations and the rest natives, commanded by Mr. Yvons, an English gentleman in the Peshwa's service. In spite of these reinforcements, the siege languished chiefly on account of the backwardness of the Maráthás. On the

Siege of Dhárwár, 1790.

[1] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 485. [2] Moor's Narrative, 29, 86-87.

Chapter VII. History. MAISUR, 1776-1792.

13th of March (1790) Colonel Frederick died worn out by delays and disappointments. The siege was kept up till the 4th of April, or twenty-nine weeks in all, when the garrison, reduced by desertion and death from 10,000 to 3000, capitulated. During the siege the loss of the English detachment was 500 killed and wounded, of whom one hundred were Europeans; the Marátha loss was estimated at 3000.[1] After the fall of Dhárwár, several places, among them Kushgal fort about twelve miles to the south-east of Dhárwár and the rich trading town of Hubli, surrendered to the Maráthás. The scene of war between the confederates and Tipu was transferred to the country south of the Tungbhadra; and the whole of the Bombay Karnátak passed to the Maráthás.

Condition, 1790.

In spite of the frequent wars, when it passed from Tipu to the Maráthás the district was fairly prosperous. For about sixteen miles north of Dhárwár the country was very rich; no garden mould could be richer.[2] The lands near Dhárwár were in the highest state of tillage, affording the cattle luxuriant pasturage and the army plentiful supplies. About ten miles south-east of Dhárwár, the country round Hubli was well wooded and watered, and allowing for the time of the year (April) was in the highest tillage. Though there were no ornamental buildings, the town of Hubli was a rich centre of trade sending sandalwood and ivory to the western coast chiefly through Goa, and receiving silk cotton goods and rice. Many rich bankers negotiated bills on distant places and had such weight in the money market that the exchange and the currency of a great part of the neighbouring country was controlled by Hubli.[3] Though the town of Sávanur, about thirty-six miles south-east of Dhárwár, had lately (1786) been ruined, the country round it was rich and well tilled.[4] About ten miles south of Sávanur near Devgiri the country was well wooded, watered, and tilled.[5] At Háveri and Motábennur about ten miles south-east of Devgiri, the country had the same rich appearance. Motábennur, a market town, was particularly flourishing with stone houses and a brisk traffic with Maisur, chiefly in sandalwood.[6] Birgi, about four miles further south, was almost surrounded with groves and gardens.[7] Ránebennur in the extreme south-east of the district was a market town of some extent and importance with large gardens and groves to the east and north.[8] In times of peace the country was full of oxen and sheep; the sheep for food, the oxen for work. Sheep were very cheap, selling at 6*d.* apiece (4 to the rupee). Fowls were abundant, about 1¼*d.* apiece (20 to the rupee); there were no geese, turkies, or tame ducks. The forests had tigers, bears, and leopards, a few lynx, and no lions. There were wolves, hyænas, jackals, and foxes on every hill, and in the open country endless herds of antelope and other deer. There were peafowl, partridges, quail, snipe, doves,

---

[1] Moor's Narrative of Captain Little's Detachment, 1-41; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 485-87. A detailed account of the siege is given under Dhárwár in Places.
[2] Moor's Narrative, 42, 259. [3] Moor's Narrative, 253-254. [4] Moor's Narrative 242,250.
[5] Moor's Narrative, 51. [6] Moor's Narrative, 41-42. [7] Moor's Narrative, 51.
[8] Moor's Narrative, 51.

plover, junglecock, florican, and bustard. The ponds were full of duck, teal, and widgeons. Fish were seldom eaten; the necessaries of life were so abundant that there was no need to drain the pools. In times of plenty grain was very cheap. A bullock-load or 160 pounds (80 *pakka shers*) of millet, enough to last a family of six for a month, could be bought for 2*s*. (Re. 1). Fruit and vegetables were less plentiful than grain, fowls, and mutton. Plantains were the chief fruit, and mangoes were abundant though inferior to Bombay, Goa, and other coast mangoes. Palm-juice was drunk fresh and fermented. The fermented juice was drunk to excess by most of the lower classes. The other fruits were melons, pomegranates, grapes, pineapples, limes, custardapples, jacks, and guavas. Cocoanuts and dates were abundant and were sent to the coast. Though it was supposed that the cocoa-palm did not flourish away from the sea, there were groves or forests of cocoa-palms 150 miles from the coast. Neither rice nor gram was common; millet took the place of rice or wheat and *kulthi* of gram.[1] About this time (1792) the district or *sarkar* of Bankápur, of the province or *subha* of Bijápur, contained sixteen sub-divisions or *parganás* yielding a yearly revenue of £254,299 (Rs. 25,42,990).[2]

By the treaty of Seringápatam (February 1792) at the end of the third Maisur War (1790-1792) the Maráthás were confirmed in their possession of the Bombay Karnátak. Most of Dhárwár and Sávanur was made over to Parashurám Bháu not as a grant or *jágir*, but in payment of the expenses he had incurred in the late war with Tipu. The parts not ceded to Parashurám Bháu's family were assigned for the support of certain garrisons and for the payment of the Marátha army under the command of Dhondu Pant Gokhale an officer of the Peshwa, whom, during his absence to Seringápatam, Parashurám Bháu had left behind, and who before Parashurám's return, had by raising money and troops, become so strong that Parashurám Bháu had to temporise with him.[3]

While Parashurám Bháu was in the country south of the Tungbhadra, a Marátha named Dhundhia Vágh, whose daring and unscrupulousness had raised him to high rank in the Maisur army, left Tipu's service, and in 1790 with a few followers settled as a freebooter in the country near Dhárwár. On his return from Maisur in 1793 Parashurám Bháu was too busily engaged in disputes with the Kolhápur chief to leave him time to attempt to suppress Dhundhia. In 1794 Dhondhu Pant whom the Poona government had directed to act against Dhundhia, attacked him with great vigour. Dhundhia Vágh was totally defeated and forced to take refuge with his late master Tipu with whom he had been negotiating for the

[1] Moor's Narrative, 277-280.

[2] The details are Haveli Rs. 2,57,456, Másur Rs. 15,000, Kundgol Rs. 9,09,037, Karajgi Rs. 1,20,000, Kumdaran Rs. 41,250, Dhárwár or Nasarabad Rs. 1,20,129, Nargal Rs. 54,377, Gadmi Rs. 3,13,105, Misrikota Rs. 97,500, Lakhmeshvar Rs. 2,59,529, Rynabeli Rs. 82,500, Haliyál Rs. 24,581, Bajgal Rs. 37,500, Banehali Rs. 68,761, Harihar Rs. 10,368, and Risihali Rs. 13,1903. The Navalgund and Nargund subdivisions belonged to the district of Torgal. Navalgund yielded a yearly revenue of Rs. 75,420, and Nargund of Rs. 75,000. Waring's Maráthás, 243,246.

[3] Stokes' Belgaum, 60.

Chapter VII. History.

THE PESHWÁS, 1792-1817.

Disorders, 1795-1800.

recovery of Sávanur.[1] From 1795 to 1800 the district was full of disturbances owing to Parashurám's absence at Poona and Kolhápur, to the self-aggrandizement of Dhondu Pant Gokhale, who in 1796, through the last Peshwa Bájiráo's (1796-1817) friendship had been appointed the Peshwa's governor or *sar-subhedár* of the Bombay Karnátak, and to the lax system of administration. In 1797 one Bhimráo, who had possessed himself of Dambal in Gadag, gathered an army and with Dhondhu Pant Gokhale's aid or connivance ravaged the rich and hitherto untouched country south of the Malprabha, and for twelve years carried on unceasing pillage and murder, until at last Dhondhu Pant's nephew Bápu Gokhale was forced to disown and seize him. This was not done until one-half of the population of the tract was destroyed and tillage was confined to little circles round villages from which the people on the approach of the enemy had to betake themselves to the village tower. These towers, with which the villages however small were furnished, were the only security the people had for their lives, though occasionally even the towers were set fire to and all within died of suffocation.[2] While the north was thus disturbed the other parts of the district were not at rest. Contests were continually going on between the Kolhápur chief, Parashurám Bháu, and Dhondu Pant Gokhale, sometimes jointly sometimes each for himself. In the course of these struggles (1799) Dhondu Pant appropriated Navalgund and Gadag which belonged to an hereditary *desái*,[3] a great portion of the Bháu's territory was ravaged and usurped by the Kolhápur chief; and in 1799 Parashurám was killed.[4] In 1799 the fourth Maisur War ended on the 4th of May by the victory of the confederate British and Nizám's armies, the fall of Seringapatam, and the death of Tipu. The descriptions of the country seem to show that it had fallen off considerably between 1790 and 1800. In 1790 and 1791 the ravages of Parashurám's army had caused ruin and famine, and between 1790 and 1794 the uncontrolled brigandage of Dhundhia Vágh had impoverished the people.[5] In a private letter, dated the 20th of May 1800, Major Munro wrote: Sávanur and Dhárwár belong to the Peshwa and to Áppa Sáheb, the son of Parashurám Bháu. Neither of them have much authority. Their deputies plunder each other, and are seldom able to collect the revenue as their districts are full of a rebellious or rather of a thieving set of petty landlords.[6]

---

[1] Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 254.
[2] Marshall's Statistical Report of Belgaum (1820), 134.
[3] Stokes' Belgaum, 63.
[4] Stokes' Belgaum, 61-64.
[5] Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 260. When in 1791 Parashurám Bháu accompanied the English and the Nizám in their wars against Tipu he spread havoc and dismay wherever he went. The country about Sashivhally in Maisur before Parashurám's invasion (1791) was in a very good state. After his destructive march not above one-fourth of the people remained alive and these were left destitute of everything which the Maráthás could either carry away or destroy. The wretched remnants of the inhabitants had again begun to recover, when Dhundhia Vágh came among them (1790-1794). He did not put any one to death; but he plundered the houses and even burned some of the villages, the inhabitants of which he suspected of hiding their property. Buchanan's Mysore, III. 305.
[6] Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 247.

Colonel A. Wellesley, afterwards the Duke of Wellington, while in pursuit of Dhundhia Vágh, wrote in a letter to Government dated the 7th of July 1800: 'Whether from a recollection of former oppressions or from a sense of their inability to protect them, it is clear that the people are averse to the government of the Bháu's family and desire a change.' In a letter to Major Munro on the 7th of August 1800, Colonel Wellesley wrote, 'I hope that before we shall have done in this country, if we do not take it for ourselves, we shall establish in it a strong government, one which can keep the relations of amity and peace. At all events, we have established a respect for ourselves; we have gained a knowledge of and have had friendly intercourse with the principal people; and it is not probable that they will hereafter be very forward to encourage any disturbance in our country. They see plainly that it is in our power to retaliate, and from what I have seen of their country and their mode of management, I am of opinion, that at present our robbers would get more than theirs, or in other words that they have more to lose than we have.'[1] According to Buchanan, the territory south of the Varda, though fertile, was greatly inferior to the Sávanur district; but both were fast becoming desert.[2] Near Harihar and as far at least as Sávanur most of the husbandmen were Lingáyats. There were scarcely any Maráthás among them. Very few of the poorer people married, as the expense of the marriage ceremony was considered too great. They pleased their mistresses by a piece of cloth after which they lived as husband and wife; and both the woman and her children were as much respected as if she had been married with due ceremonies. There were very few spinsters. Few of the men were in the habit of going to foreign countries, and the rich had more wives than one, which made up for the men who lived as bachelors. The people on the banks of the Tungbhadra were remarkably fickle, constantly changing from one side of the river to the other and at each time changing their masters. Buchanan found them remarkably stupid, though they prided themselves on being superior to their northern neighbours, who, according to them, were no better than beasts. The Bráhmans also were stupid and illiterate.[3]

Dhundhia Vágh, 1800.

After his defeat in 1794 Dhundhia Vágh re-entered Tipu's service and was offered speedy preferment if he would turn Muhammadan. Dhundhia refused, was forcibly circumcised, and was cast into prison. He was kept in irons till he was set free by the English on the taking of Seringápatam in May 1799. He soon began to plunder and with 300 men was driven from Maisur by a British force under Colonel Stevenson and Colonel Dalrymple.[4] He then entered Dhárwár, but was attacked by Dhondu Pant Gokhale into whose hands his family and effects fell. He next fled towards the territories of the Nawáb of Sávanur pursued by a

[1] Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 261. [2] Buchanan's Mysore, III. 313.
[3] Buchanan's Mysore, III. 314-315.
[4] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, I, 295.

Chapter VII. History.

THE PESHWÁS, 1792-1817.

Dhundhia Vágh, 1800.

detachment of Marátha horse. He offered to enter into Gokhale's service, but Gokhale refused to receive him unless he gave himself up.[1] He left Sávanur and in August or September 1799 entered the Kolhápur service, the chief readily receiving him into his army. He became too strong for the Kolhápur chief, quarrelled with him, set up for himself, gathered the disaffected and discontented of all parts of India, and, taking advantage of the absence of Appa Sáheb and Gokhale at the siege of Kolhápur, re-entered the district, and established himself so firmly that no force which they could bring could ever drive him from it.[2] He assumed the title of the King of the two Worlds, and in the early months of 1800 plundered several places near Kittur in Belgaum on the Dhárwár frontier and to the north of Dhárwár. He then established himself in the Sávanur country, and, on the first of May 1800, laid siege to Dambal, twelve miles south-east of Gadag. While Dhundhia was engaged at the siege of Dambal, Appa Sáheb Patvardhan detached a force of 5000 cavalry and a large body of infantry to stop his progress. Against Appa's force Dhundhia despatched one of equal strength. Appa's force was attacked, beaten, and dispersed, and about 300 horse were taken to Dhundhia's camp.[3] Dhundhia got possession of Dambal, advanced to Hávanur then in the Sávanur country, and was joined by all kinds of people chiefly Musalmáns from Aurangabad, Haidarabad, Kadappa, and almost the whole of Tipu's cavalry.[4] He sent small detachments across the Varda to take the forts in that country and to make collections, and, by the 18th of June 1800, except Hávanur on the left bank of the Tungbhadra about sixteen miles north of Ránebennur, there was no fort of any consequence which had not fallen into Dhundhia's hands. Colonel Wellesley, who was in command of the troops in Maisur, represented that so long as Dhundhia remained at large it was impossible to settle the Marátha frontier, or to restore peace and order in Sunda in North Kánara which had been ceded to the English on the death of Tipu. He was ordered to march with a large force against Dhundia and was authorized to enter Marátha territory. He arrived at Harihar on the right bank of the Tungbhadra on the 16th of June, and on the 20th of June sent a patrol to reconnoitre the fort of Airáni on the left bank of the Tungbhadra, about six miles below Harihar. The fort was left by the garrison during the night and the English troops took possession on the morning of the 21st.[5] By the 24th of June Colonel Wellesley had passed the Tungbhadra and on the 27th arrived with cavalry and advanced picquets before Ránebennur about twelve miles west of Airáni. The fort fired on the cavalry and an attack was instantly ordered. The assault was made by advanced picquets of fifty Europeans and 150 Natives under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Monypenny and the leading battalion. Colonel

[1] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, I. 302; and Grant Duff's Maráthás, 543.
[2] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, II. 78.
[3] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, I. 558-560.
[4] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, I. 560.
[5] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, II. 28.

Stevenson posted cavalry round the fort to cut off the garrison's retreat and Lieutenant-Colonel Monypenny led the attack with such dash that the place was escaladed without the loss of a man. Most of the garrison of 500 men were killed. Like the fort of Airáni Ránebennur was given to Áppa Sáheb. Shortly after the capture of Ránebennur a detachment under Colonel Stevenson drove Dhundhia's people out of the country between the Varda and the Tungbhadra.[1]

Meanwhile Dhondu Pant Gokhale was moving south from Kolhápur ostensibly to co-operate with Colonel Wellesley against Dhundhia who had removed (19th June) to Hubli about ten miles south of Dhárwár. It was arranged that Gokhale should not cross the Malprabha until Colonel Wellesley had passed the Varda and had advanced to Sávanur. But before Colonel Wellesley had passed the Varda, Gokhale crossed the Malprabha and went into the Kittur district with the intention of making peace with Dhundhia. He restored to Dhundhia his family and everything that was taken from him in his defeat in 1799, and sent an agent to his camp to negotiate. Hearing that after leaving him the same agent had gone to Colonel Wellesley's camp, Dhundhia suspected Gokhale of treachery and moved against him. Gokhale endeavoured to draw off into the forest country north-west of Kittur, but on the 30th of June between Dhárwár and Haliyál in Kánara Dhundhia attacked his rear guard of 250 horse and cut it to pieces. Gokhale, who was in command, was slain, and, in fulfilment of a vow which he had taken on his defeat in 1799, Dhundhia dyed his moustaches in Gokhale's heart's-blood. Four of the guns fell into Dhundhia's hands who pursued the main body of the army. The horse escaped, some to Dhárwár and others to Haliyál where they were welcomed and protected by a British detachment.[2] News of Gokhale's defeat and death reached Colonel Wellesley at Ránebennur on the 2nd of July. He left Ránebennur and arrived at Háveri on the Poona-Harihar road on the 3rd, he reached Devgiri on the 6th, and the right bank of the Varda on the 7th. After building a redoubt to guard the boats and secure communication with the rear, he crossed to the left bank of the Varda. On the 11th Colonel Wellesley heard that Dhundhia, who had been in the Kittur country till the 7th, had advanced to Kundgol, about twenty miles north of Sávanur, with the intention of giving him battle. Colonel Wellesley marched to Sávanur on the 12th to place his baggage in safety. On the evening of the 13th he heard that Dhundhia had come to within six miles of his camp, and then returned to Kundgol. Leaving his baggage in Sávanur, on the morning of the 14th, Colonel Wellesley marched to Kundgol, but on the night of the 13th Dhundhia had fled about eighteen miles east to Kanveh. Thus between the morning of the 13th and of the 14th Dhundhia marched about fifty-four miles. Dhundhia had left a garrison of 600 men in Kundgol, which the British troops attacked after a march of over twenty-two miles and when they had been under arms more

[1] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, II. 34-39.
[2] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, II. 47, 51, 53, 54; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 551.

Chapter VII. History.

THE PESHWÁS, 1792-1817.

Colonel Wellesley, 1800.

than twelve hours. The cavalry under Colonel Stevenson surrounded the place; the gateway was attacked by the 1st battalion of the 12th Regiment and an endeavour was made to blow it open, while the grenadiers of the 73rd Regiment under Captain Todd, supported by those of the 1st battalion of the 8th Regiment, escaladed the curtain on the opposite side with a spirit which overcame every obstacle. The place was carried with small loss on the evening of the 14th. The officers who distinguished themselves on this occasion were Colonel Stevenson, Lieutenant-Colonel Torin, Lieutenant-Colonel Tolfrey, Major Powis, Captain Balfour of the Artillery, and Captain Todd, and the grenadiers of the 73rd. As Dhundhia's people had begun to desert him at Kundgol, Colonel Wellesley issued a proclamation offering a reward of £3000 (Rs. 30,000) for his person. On the 15th Colonel Wellesley marched to Lakhmeshvar, a large and rich town about sixteen miles south-east of Kundgol, which was evacuated. On the 16th he marched twelve miles north to Shirhatti which before his arrival had been undergoing a siege for three weeks. Colonel Wellesley spent the 17th and 18th in retracing his steps to Sávanur to get his baggage and provisions. Meanwhile Dhundhia had fled from Kanveh on the 15th to the forests behind Dambal, and thence on the 17th to Annigeri about thirty miles east of Dhárwár.[1] On the night of the 19th Colonel Wellesley was joined at Sávanur by part of Gokhale's beaten army under the command of his nephew Bápu Gokhale, which had remained at Haliyál from the day of their defeat (30th June). With the intention of joining Colonel Bowser, who was coming from the Doáb, Colonel Wellesley left Sávanur, arrived at Kalasa about ten miles north on the 22nd, at Lakhmeshvar about five miles further north on the 23rd where he received supplies of cattle, and at Shirhatti about ten miles further north on the 25th, where he was joined by about 1500 Marátha horse the remaining portion of Gokhale's beaten army. On the 26th he went to Dambal, about fifteen miles north-east, and appeared before the fort which contained about 1000 men. To them he offered a promise of safety, and gave them an hour to consider till the line would come up. They declined to accept the terms offered and the fort was surrounded by the cavalry under Colonel Stevenson and by the Maráthás under Gokhale. It was attacked in three places. At the gateway by Major Desse, with the picquets, supported by two companies of the 2nd battalion of the 2nd Regiment; on one face by Lieutenant-Colonel Capper with the grenadiers and light infantry of the 73rd and the 2nd battalion of the 4th Regiment; and on the other by Captain Macpherson with the grenadiers and light infantry of the 77th and the remainder of the 2nd battalion of the 2nd Bombay Regiment. It was impossible to force the gateway. But the party under Ensign Hooper, of the 73rd Regiment, entered the fort by escalade, and the other two attacks succeeded nearly at the same time. Almost the only loss to the assailants was caused by the breaking of a ladder.[2] The commandant of the fort fell into the

[1] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, II. 56, 59, 61, 65-67.
[2] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, II. 73.

hands of the British troops and was hanged.[1] The fort was handed to the Peshwa's commandant who had been confined in irons in the fort since Dhundhia took it on the 4th of May. On the 27th Colonel Wellesley arrived at Gadag, about fifteen miles north, but found it empty. The fall of Dambal was a severe blow to Dhundhia, who moved from Annigeri to Saundatti in Belgaum with the object of crossing the Malprabha. By the 27th of July the whole district was cleared of Dhundhia and his people; not a single stronghold was left in his hands. Colonel Wellesley arrived at Alagvádi, about five miles north of Navalgund, on the 29th. From Alagvádi he marched into Belgaum, plundered and destroyed Dhundhia's camp on the Malprabha, pursued him through Belgaum, Bijápur, and the Nizám's territories, until on the 10th of September he was surprised and killed at the Nizám's village of Konágal. The destruction of Dhundhia's power did not free the district from disturbance. So bitter was the feeling between Peshwa Bájiráo and the Patvardhans, that the Peshwa instructed Bápu Gokhale his governor, or *sar-subhedár*, of the Bombay Karnátak to harass and annoy Áppa Sáheb, and in November 1801 Bápu Gokhale brought an army, and took and plundered Sávanur and Háveri about six miles south of Karajgi.[2]

In October 1802 Peshwa Bájiráo was driven by Holkar from Poona, and took refuge with the English with whom he entered into the treaty of Bassein (31st December). Under the terms of this treaty, in return for the British guarantee of protection, to meet the expenses of the subsidiary force, along with other territory Bájiráo ceded the Sávanur country with twenty-six sub-divisions and with a yearly revenue of £102,284 (Rs. 10,22,840) and the sub-division of Bankápur with a yearly revenue of £55,676 (Rs. 5,56,760). At the close of 1803, this territory was restored to the Peshwa in exchange for land in Bundelkhand. To reinstate Bájiráo at Poona General Wellesley, who had returned to Maisur after Dhundhia's death, again entered (1803) Dhárwár on his way to Poona. During the campaign against Sindia and the Berár Rája (1803) the district, though torn by internal dissensions, remained fairly quiet, as General Wellesley had made it clearly understood that he would not have his communication with the south disturbed.[3] Between

[1] Wellington's Despatches, I. 69. The commandant seems to have been hanged because he did not give up the fort (Gov. Gen. to Secret Com. of the Board of Directors, 31st August 1880, Wellington's Despatches, I. 69). Colonel Wellesley seems to have afterwards regretted that the commandant was hanged. In 1801, Colonel Stevenson, who was second in command at Dambal, wrote to General Wellesley to use his influence to get him the same summary powers which General Wellesley had at Dambal. General Wellesley (1st July 1801, Sup. Despatches, II. 484) disapproved of Colonel Stevenson's proposal, saying, such extraordinary powers ought never to be exercised. According to a correspondent in the Bombay Gazette (27th April 1881), before he left India, General Wellesley induced the Government of Bombay to allow the widow of the commandant to adopt a son and the son to bear the hereditary title of Bahádur Desái of Dambal. According to Ráo Bahádur Tirmalráo the commandant's name was Shrinivas Venkatádri, a Smárt Bráhman whose grandson joined the rebellion in 1858 and forfeited his life and estates. A correspondent of the Bombay Gazette (10th March 1881) notices that the people of the country have not forgotten the hanging of the commandant.

[2] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, II. 623.

[3] Wellington's Despatches, I. 124; West's Southern Marátha Country, 29.

Chapter VII. History.

THE PESHWÁS, 1792-1817.

Disorders, 1800-1803.

1800 and 1803 the struggle for power and plunder among the local estate-holders and officers of the Peshwa government continued without intermission. The two chief estate-holders within Dhárwár limits were Áppa Sáheb Patvardhan who enjoyed a yearly revenue of £40,000 (Rs. 4 *lákhs*) and who kept 500 horse and 1000 foot, and Venkatráo of Nargund and Rámdurg, a near relative of both Áppa Sáheb and Bápu Gokhale, who enjoyed a revenue of £12,500 (Rs. 1,25,000) and who kept 500 men to garrison Nargund fort. Among the officers of the Peshwa were Bápu Gokhale who commanded a force of 2000 horse, 1000 infantry with two or three guns, and 1000 Pendháris. He held Navalgund and Gadag yielding a revenue of £50,000 (Rs. 5 *lákhs*), and added much to his income by plundering the country near his districts. Ganpatráv Pense, besides holding his own estate in South Bijápur, managed Ránebennur and Hángal which were the estates of a Poona officer named Ruprám Chaudri; these estates together yielded a yearly revenue of £12,000 (Rs. 1,20,000). Bápuji Sindia, who had commanded Dhárwár fort since 1794, maintained a garrison of 800 peons and 120 horse out of the revenues of the districts of Betigeri and Mardagi yielding a yearly revenue of £12,000 (Rs. 1,20,000). Amratráv, the adoptive brother of Peshwa Bájiráo held the town and districts of Annigeri and Parasgad in Belgaum yielding a yearly revenue of £5000 (Rs. 50,000). Besides these there was Kheir Khán the Nawáb of Sávanur the only Musalmán of note. He had been so ill-used by Tipu and was so harassed by the Bráhman estateholders and chiefs, that in 1800 he placed himself under the protection of Colonel Wellesley. Colonel Wellesley had arranged to secure his revenues to the Nawáb but nothing was done.[1] He was a pensioner on the Maráthás, but his pension of £500 (Rs. 5000) a year was seldom paid. In 1806 his palace was in ruins, and himself and his family in rags. Towards the close of Bájiráo's reign (1813-17), as they knew he was bent on their ruin, most of the Southern Marátha chiefs, though not actively turbulent, maintained an attitude of semi-independence of the Peshwa. To this want of harmony among the rulers were added the poverty of the country and the misery of the peasantry brought about by the Peshwa's system of farming the revenue. Independently of the distrust which Bájiráo's character and aims excited the power wielded by the notorious Trimbakji Denglia caused general disgust. The temper of the country was shown in 1814 by the refusal of the commandant of Dhárwár to give up the fort to Trimbakji in accordance with the orders of the Peshwa who had to send a force to invest it.[2] On the 13th of June 1817, under the treaty of Poona, the Peshwa agreed to cede territory in lieu of the contingent he was bound by the treaty of Bassein to maintain. Dhárwár and Kusvugal about fifteen miles east of Dhárwár, together with the districts south of the Varda, were among the cessions. The early occupation of these districts was considered of great import-

[1] Transactions in the Marátha Empire (1803), 85-88.

[2] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 623-624. When asked by Bájiráo to surrender the fort to Trimbakji the commandant replied: 'If your Highness will send a gentleman to relieve me in the command, or if you will send a clerk in your own name, to whom I can commit my charge, your servant will present the keys to him; but I will never give over the fort of Dhárwár to such a person as Trimbakji Denglia.'

ance to the British interests as it would facilitate the extensive operations at that time in course of preparation against the Pendháris, and, in the case of rupture with the Peshwa, the possession of Dhárwár would be of infinite value to any force advancing from the south.[1] Colonel, afterwards Sir Thomas, Munro was appointed Commissioner with both civil and military command of the newly acquired territory. Taking with him a force, already on the Tungbhadra under Brigadier General Pritzler, he marched to Dhárwár. Major Newall at the head of a battalion of Native Infantry was sent in advance, and he conducted matters with so much address that he prevailed on the garrison, though in a state of mutiny, to yield. In July 1817, when Colonel Munro and his party arrived, they found the fort in the hands of the Company's troops.[2] Shortly after his arrival and before hostilities with the Peshwa had begun Munro was ordered to reduce Sundur, a principality beyond the Tungbhadra, whose chief had defied the authority of the Peshwa, and for whose reduction the Company had long before given a pledge. On the 11th of October, leaving the second battalion of the 4th Regiment of Native Infantry and two six-pounder field-pieces under the command of Major Newall to occupy Dhárwár, Kusvugal, and Ránebennur, Colonel Munro and Lieutenant-Colonel Dalrymple crossed the Tungbhadra with the remainder of the force and reduced Sundur. After this service, on the 7th of November, in obedience to instructions, Colonel Munro made over command to Colonel Hewett, C.B., with directions to move the brigade to the point where Brigadier-General Pritzler was appointed to join.[3] Colonel Munro returned to Dhárwár on the 14th of November, and there heard of the outbreak of the war with the Peshwa and of the battle of Kirkee (5th November). On the 28th of November he wrote[4] to the Governor-General: 'The hostile conduct of the Peshwa and my present situation in the middle of the Southern Maráthás, where I have an opportunity of seeing a good deal of their civil and military government, will, I hope, in some degree excuse my addressing your Lordship. The local situation of the Poona territories and the still remaining influence of the Peshwa, as the nominal head of the Marátha states, make the overthrow of his government perhaps the most important of all the measures that can be adopted for the safety of our own dominions. The Marátha government from its foundation has been one of the most destructive that ever existed in India. It never relinquished the predatory spirit of its founder Shiváji. That spirit grew with its power, and, when its empire extended from the Ganges to the Káveri, this nation was little better than a horde of imperial thieves. All other Hindu states took a pride in the improvement of the country and in the construction of temples, ponds, canals, and other public works. The Maráthás have done nothing of this kind: their work has been chiefly desolation. They did not seek their revenue in the improvement of the country, but in the exaction of an established tribute from their neighbours and in predatory incursions to levy more tribute. Though now fortunately obliged to relinquish their claims,

Defects of the Marátha Government.

[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 73.
[2] Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 460.
[3] Blacker's Marátha War, 59-60.
[4] Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 471-473.

Chapter VII. History.

THE PESHWÁS, 1792-1817.

the wish to revive them will never cease but with the extinction of their power. A government so hostile in its principles to improvement and tranquillity ought, if possible, to be completely overthrown. It may be a matter of some difficulty to decide what ought to be established in its room, and whether the chief of the government should be taken from among the relations of the Peshwa or the descendants of Shiváji. Before the establishment of the new state it might be expedient to require the cession to the British Government of the provinces south of the Krishna. The provinces between the Varda and the Krishna are not properly Marátha; though there is a considerable mixture of Maráthás, the Kánarese form the body of the people. The Marátha estate-holders or *jágirdárs* and their principal servants are in some measure considered as strangers and conquerors. The best of the horse are in general Maráthás and are no doubt attached to their chiefs; but the infantry in the forts and villages are mostly Kánarese and are ready to join any power that will pay them. All the trading classes are anxious for the expulsion of the Maráthás because they interrupt their trade by arbitrary exactions and often plunder them of their whole property. The heads of villages, a much more powerful body than the commercial class, are likewise very generally desirous of being relieved from the Marátha dominion.[1]

Colonel Munro's Conquest, 1817.

When Colonel Munro heard that war had broken out, he began to make preparations to act against the Peshwa's troops and to take the country. For these purposes his means were of the slenderest. The force at his disposal consisted of five companies of Native Infantry, one gun, and one mortar. He had not even the help of a staff officer. But he had a most able second in Lieutenant-Colonel Newall, who, after being appointed by the Madras Government to the special command of the fortress of Dhárwár, was allowed to leave it for more active and important service in the field. Just before the outbreak of the war the Peshwa had directed the Southern Marátha chiefs to reoccupy the district ceded by the treaty of Poona and had ordered Kásiráo Gokhale, his civil and military governor, to support them. The country was studded with forts, all of which though not of a superior order were secure against hasty assault and required to be breached in order to be reduced. These, together with other posts capable of embarrassing the movements of an enemy, were also filled with the Peshwa's adherents.[1] With these difficulties Munro, who was promoted to be General on the 29th of November, had to deal. He wrote several times to the Madras Government for regular troops, but no troops were sent. Availing himself of the confidence and goodwill of the people he took the bold step of using the inhabitants of the ceded country to subdue it for him. He appointed military officers or *amildárs* to most of the enemy's districts with orders to enlist armed constables or peons and take as much territory as possible. He had soon as many as twenty-five officers or *amildárs*, with about seven thousand constables or peons.[2] Among the officers one Rámráo of Maisur

[1] Blacker's Marátha War, 286; Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 475-76.
[2] Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 479; Stokes' Belgaum, 74.

was appointed to Navalgund about twenty miles north-east of Dhárwár. He very quickly took possession of more than half the district, and on the 19th of December (1817) advanced from a village about two miles from Navalgand with 500 men to attack Kásiráo Gokhale's son who was at that place with a body of seven hundred horse. About 600 of the horse were picquetted in the streets and in the open space between the town and the fort. The rest were mounted and watching Rámráo who advanced at noon so rapidly that he entered the town before the horsemen could mount and leave. The panic was so great that the Marátha horse fled in every direction without attempting to offer resistance. Nineteen horses were taken alive and twenty were found dead. A large number of the enemy were killed, Kásiráo's son escaped with difficulty, and of the two officers under him one was killed and the other wounded and taken. On hearing of the defeat of his son, Kásiráo, who was then at Bádámi in South Bijápur, marched to join him with 550 horse and 200 foot, and after gathering the fugitives reached Navalgund on the 22nd of December. Rámráo retired into the old fort, and, on the 23rd, with his ammunition nearly exhausted, he was very hard pressed by Kásiráo. On hearing that Kásiráo had reached Navalgund, on the morning of the 23rd, General Munro marched from Dhárwár with two flank companies, one of the battalion guns, and a five and a half inch mortar under the command of Major Newall. Within two miles of Navalgund some small parties of horse were seen; and about a mile further the main body was discovered moving slowly along the side of a rising ground at a distance of about a thousand yards. As the enemy seemed to intend to come round on General Munro's baggage two shells were thrown and two horsemen were killed. On this the whole body moved off attended by about two hundred foot, and were soon out of sight leaving about ten dead in the streets.[1] After the blockade of Navalgund was raised General Munro and Major Newall returned to Dhárwár. In the beginning of 1818 (3rd January), escorted by Lieutenant-Colonel Newall at the head of a detachment of three companies, a reinforcement of two iron eighteen-pounders, two iron and two brass twelve-pounders, and two mortars, was received from the garrison at Belári. With these came six fresh companies, two of the 2nd battalion of the 12th Native Infantry and four of the 2nd battalion of Pioneers, and three troops of the 5th Native Infantry under the command of Captain Garton. The last were furnished on his own responsibility by Major-General Lang who commanded in the ceded districts. With these reinforcements General Munro considered himself strong enough to take the offensive. On the 5th of January he invested Gadag, about forty miles east of Dhárwár, and, after a few shells had been thrown and a battery erected, the place surrendered on the 6th. On the 7th he moved on Dambal, about twelve miles south-east of Gadag, which after sustaining a four hours' fire from two batteries capitulated on the morning of the 8th. From Dambal he marched on Hubli, forty miles west, where he arrived on the 13th, having received by the way an accession to his force of two hundred Maisur regular

[1] Gleig's Life of Munro, I, 480-482.

Chapter VII. History.

THE PESHWÁS, 1792-1817.

General Munro's Conquests, 1817.

infantry. The commandant of Hubli fort on being summoned promised to surrender on the following morning and kept his word marching out with 300 men, the remains of a more numerous garrison, of whom a large portion had deserted from want of pay. On the following day (15th) Misrikota, about eight miles south-west of Hubli, was admitted to the same terms. All these places General Munro immediately occupied by corps of constables or peons without crippling his little army of regulars. He returned to Dhárwár on the 16th without the loss of a man, though threatened at every step by Kásiráo Gokhale's cavalry.[1] The system of securing the districts by the help of irregular troops was attended with extraordinary success. These armed constables in separate parties under their officers, not only drove the enemy from the open country, but from several forts and many walled villages. To enlist the sympathy of the husbandmen and the people in general, General Munro caused it to be proclaimed that the British Government would treat as enemies all who in future paid tribute to the Peshwa or his officers. The people who were ground down by the Maráthás gladly obeyed so pleasing an order. They not only refused to satisfy the demands of their old masters, but acted everywhere in aid of the irregulars. Before the 18th of January the whole of the Marátha country south of the Malprabha was completely in the hands of General Munro.[2] General Munro remained at Dhárwár till the 4th of February organizing his force and bringing the conquered country to order. His troops were in the interval actively employed partly in escorting treasure partly in opposing the Pendháris. A band of these marauders passing the flank of the British troops beyond the Narbada and ascending the Berár hills, had marched south and spread havoc in the Company's territories beyond the Tungbhadra. One of these marauding companies recrossed the Tungbhadra on the 18th of January and marched north leaving the Sunda forests in Kánara about six miles on their left. On the 20th General Munro heard of them and at eight o'clock that night detached Captain Garton with three troops of the 5th Light Cavalry to intercept them passing between Dhárwár and Haliyál. Captain Garton came by surprise upon the enemy's bivouac at three in the following morning (21st) and within an hour they were driven beyond the frontier with a loss of twenty men and forty horses.[3] On the 5th of February General Munro started for Bádámi on the Malprahba in South Bijápur. His force included three troops of Cavalry, twelve companies of Native Infantry, four companies of Pioneers, four heavy guns, four field pieces, and a howitzer. He marched first to Navalgund and then to Hullur seven miles north-west of Ron, where he encamped on the 8th. The Pioneers, who were employed this day in opening a road in advance, were driven in by a party of horse. To reconnoitre the strength and designs of the enemy a picquet of thirty native cavalry were ordered out accompanied by Captain Middleton, the officer on duty for the day. This picquet was enticed

[1] Blacker's Marátha War, 287; Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 483-84.
[2] Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 482, 485.
[3] Blacker's Marátha War, 288-89; Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 485-86.

The Peshwás, 1792-1817.

General Munro's Conquests, 1817-18.

to follow small parties of the enemy until they found themselves exposed to the attack of an overwhelming force. Though very closely pressed they retreated in good order and gained the camp with the loss of nine men and eight horses killed and wounded. A troop of the 5th Cavalry was immediately ordered out to repel the enemy who retired, and Captain Munro, who commanded, after pursuing till nightfall made no more impression on them than the destruction of a few of the worst mounted.[1] About this time (10th February) the English took possession of Sátára and by proclamation issued on the 11th of February the Peshwa was formally deposed and with certain specified exceptions his territory was annexed to the British dominions.[2] From this date the lands included in the present district of Dhárwár, which were already in the hands of General Munro, may be said to have passed to the British. The scene of General Munro's exploits was shifted first to Bijápur, then to Belgaum, and then to Sholápur until his triumphantly successful campaign ended on the 15th of May with the reduction of the strong fortress of Sholápur.[3] The approach of the monsoon forced General Munro to bring back from Sholápur his as well as General Pritzler's divisions of the grand army of the Deccan and they reached Hubli on the 15th of June 1818. Lieutenant-Colonel Newall with the second battalion of the fourth Regiment resumed possession of Dhárwár into which were thrown the heavy guns and ordnance stores; and the head-quarters and remaining corps cantoned at Hubli in preparation for the approaching rains.[4]

The British, 1818-1883.

On General Munro devolved not merely the conduct of the war but the civil administration of all the provinces which he had obtained by conquest or cession. Every question connected with the settlement of claims, the adjustment of the revenue, and the administration of justice was referred to him; his tent was not more the head-quarters of an army than the chief civil court in the Bombay Karnátak. How great an impression General Munro's success made on those of his contemporaries who were best able to estimate his services is shown by the following letter from Sir John Malcolm to Mr. Adams, the Secretary to the Government of India (13th February 1818): 'I send you a copy of a public letter from Tom Munro Sáheb, written for the information of Sir Thomas Hislop. If this letter makes the same impression upon you that it did upon me, we shall all recede, as this extraordinary man comes forward. We use common vulgar means, and go on zealously and actively and courageously enough; but how different is his part in the drama! Insulated in an enemy's country with no military means whatever (five disposable companies of sepoys were nothing), he forms the plan of subduing the country, expelling the army by which it is occupied, and collecting the revenues that are due to the enemy through the means of the inhabitants themselves aided and

---

[1] Blacker's Maratha War, 289. [2] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 660.
[3] Details of General Munro's successes in each of these districts are given in their Statistical Accounts. [4] Blacker's Maratha War, 314.

Chapter VII. History.

THE BRITISH, 1818-1883.

General Munro, 1818.

supported by a few irregular infantry, whom he invites, from the neighbouring provinces for that purpose. His plan, which is at once simple and great, is successful in a degree that a mind like his could alone have anticipated. The country comes into his hands by the most legitimate of all modes, the zealous and spirited efforts of the natives to place themselves under his rule, and to enjoy the benefits of a government, which, when administered by a man like him, is one of the best in the world. Munro, they say, has been aided in this great work by his local reputation, but that adds to his title to praise. His popularity, in the quarter where he is placed, is the result of long experience of his talents and virtues, and rests exactly upon that basis of which an able and good man may be proud.'[1] In the British House of Commons, on the occasion of a vote of thanks being passed to the Indian army, Mr. Canning spoke of General Munro's service in the following terms: 'At the southern extremity of this long line of operations, and in a part of the campaign carried on in a district far from public gaze, and without the opportunities of early special notice, was employed a man whose name I should indeed have been sorry to have passed over in silence. I allude to Colonel Thomas Munro, a gentleman of whose rare qualifications the late House of Commons had opportunities of judging at their bar, on the renewal of the East India Company's charter, and than whom Europe never produced a more accomplished statesman, nor India, so fertile in heroes, a more skilful soldier. This gentleman, whose occupations for some years must have been rather of a civil and administrative than of a military nature, was called early in the war to exercise abilities which, though dormant, had not rusted from disuse. He went into the field with not more than five or six hundred men, of whom a very small proportion were Europeans, and marched into the Marátha territories to take possession of the country which had been ceded to us by the treaty of Poona. The population which he subjugated by arms he managed with such address, equity, and wisdom, that he established an empire over their hearts and feelings. Nine forts were surrendered to him or taken by assault on his way; and at the end of a silent and scarcely observed progress, he emerged from a territory heretofore hostile to the British interest, with an accession instead of a diminution of force leaving everything secure and tranquil behind him. This result speaks more than could be told by any minute and extended commentary.'[2] The shattered state of his health compelled General Munro to leave his appointments, both civil and military, in the Southern Marátha country and in the autumn of 1818 he returned to Madras. On his recommendation, Mr. Chaplin, of the Madras Civil Service, who was Collector of Belári, was appointed under Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone, Principal Collector of the Marátha Country south of the Krishna and Political Agent with the Rája of Kolhápur and

[1] Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 503.

[2] Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 505. Mr. Canning was mistaken regarding the number of fortresses taken. More than nine were reduced directly by General Munro, and more than twenty-seven by his officers.

the southern Jágirdárs.[1] It has been stated above that after the reduction of Sholápur (15th May) General Munro's army returned for the rains, part under Lieutenant-Colonel Newall to Dhárwár and part under General Pritzler to Hubli. In the latter half (July-December) of the year (1818) cholera prevailed to a frightful degree in this part of the country causing immense mortality in the army and among the people generally. At Hubli, in General Pritzler's camp, in three days two officers and upwards of one hundred Europeans were carried off by cholera[2] Between 1819 and 1824 the district seems to have been quiet.[3] In October 1824 Mr. Thackeray, the Political Agent and Principal Collector, was shot dead in a disturbance at Kittur, the chief of which had in July died childless. In 1826 the question arose whether the district of Dhárwár and the states under it should continue under Bombay or be transferred to the Madras Presidency. Much correspondence passed between the two Governments, each claiming the territory as most fitly belonging to them.[4] When the question of the transfer was referred to them,

[1] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 679. [2] Bombay Courier, 19th December 1818.
[3] Mr. F. L. Charles, C. S.
[4] The reasons in favour of the districts continuing under the Government which ruled the Deccan and the west coast were: That of the Marátha chiefs whose head-quarters were in Poona or Sátára, some held a large part of the Karnátak districts; that some of the Patvardhans whose possessions lay chiefly to the south of the Krishna lived to the north of the river and some had possessions scattered over districts near Poona and Sholápur, which must keep them connected with Bombay and make them look to Bombay for redress; that the difficulty of managing these chiefs would increase as the seat of government was more remote; that the distance of the Madras Government must render it in some degree liable to be guided by the representations of the local authorities in measures connected with these chiefs and tend to diminish their security; and that the facility which Bombay possesses of throwing in reinforcements by sea at a week's warning would give her the best means of putting down insurrection in these provinces and made Bombay the government best suited for their administration. The reasons in favour of their transfer to Madras were thus set forth by Sir Thomas Munro, then Governor of Madras: That from its geographical position Bombay was unfit to render military aid at all seasons of the year, but that Madras was in every way fit to render without delay such aid in cases of emergency; that the management of Marátha chiefs had ceased to be a difficulty to the Madras Government; that the transfer would have the effect of putting out of memory the existence of the old Marátha confederacy; that the estate-holders or *jágirdárs* were strangers from the Konkan and from the countries beyond the Krishna and had no influence over the bulk of the people; that mere distance could never be the rule for the annexation of territory to any particular presidency; that the residence of the Marátha chiefs to the north of the Krishna would vary with the fancies of the chiefs and with the seat of government; that their detached possessions under different Governments would not be attended with any administrative difficulty; that much administrative inconvenience would follow if the civil and military power were in the hands of different governments, and, as the country was already in the hands of Madras troops, its civil administration should be in the hands of the Madras Government; that the Dhárwár district was bounded on the east and west by Madras districts and therefore its transfer to Madras was advisable on administrative grounds; that the district, though it had been overrun by Maráthás, was not a Marátha district; that it formed part of the Karnátak which was already under Madras and that the people were a portion of the same Kánarese nation who lived in Belári, Sunda, and Maisur, speaking the same language, and differing from them in no respect; that it would give more satisfaction to the people to be united to their own nation than to be transferred to a country of Maráthás with whom they had no natural connection; and that this reunion of their nation as a permanent measure was entitled to more weight than the convenience of the Marátha chiefs who should continue to look to Poona and Bombay for redress; that as a rule the people

Chapter VII. History.

THE BRITISH, 1818-1883.

the Court of Directors decided in 1830 that the Karnátak districts should continue to form part of the Bombay Presidency.

In 1830 (17th March) Regulation VII. of the Government of Bombay was passed bringing the Southern Marátha Country under the Regulations. The territories were formed into one collectorate, called the Dhárwár district or *zilla*. This included, besides the present district, parts of the present Belgaum, Bijápur, and Sholápur collectorates.[1] In 1836 (28th April) Belgaum was formed into a separate collectorate, the Collector of Dhárwár continuing to be styled Principal Collector.[2] In 1839 (28th June), on the death of the chief of Nipáni now in Belgaum, his estate was resumed by Government and thirteen villages in Annigeri were added to the Dhárwár district.[3] In 1844-45 an insurrection broke out in Kolháp ur and spread so rapidly that fears were entertained lest the Dhárwár fort might be seized. A force of militia or *shetsandis* was raised and by March 1845 quiet was restored without any serious disturbance.[4] Between 1845 and 1856 public peace remained unbroken.

Disturbances, 1857-58.

On the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857-58 the source of danger was entirely from the north and the east.[5] In the north, Bháskarráo, or as he was more commonly called Bába Sáheb, the Bráhman chief of Nargund, who was the most intelligent of the Southern Marátha chiefs and who had a library reputed to contain between three and four thousand Sanskrit volumes, conceived himself wronged by the British Government because he was not allowed to adopt a son. His estate, said to be one of the oldest possessions in the Bombay Karnátak (1560) and not like many held on service tenure, would, he knew, be absorbed by the British Government, and his widows be left to depend on their bounty.[7] In the east, Bhimráo Nadgir, hereditary district officer of Mundárgi, about ten miles south-east of Dambal, and the *deshmukh* of Surtur, about twelve miles south-west of Dambal, were known to be close friends and to have great influence in all the east and south of the present sub-division of Gadag; they also had grievances real or fancied. Between Nargund and Mundárgi, where Bhimráo's influence lay, the belt of patches of territory belonging to Rámdurg, Jamkhandi, Sángli, and Miraj, might at any time have become the gathering-ground for bodies of disaffected men belonging to these states. The Nargund chief and Bhimráo had

---

of the country above the Sahyádris greatly disliked going to the Malabár or western coast, but had no objection to go to the Coromandel or eastern coast, and as a consequence a native of Dhárwár would much rather come to Madras than go to Bombay; and lastly that as neither Madras nor Bombay could pay its charges without aid from Bengal, the Madras Presidency would, if Dhárwár were transferred to it, be able to answer all its demands without aid from Bengal, while if the transfer were made to Bombay, its resources would still be far below its expenditure and both presidencies instead of one would still be dependent on Bengal. Sir Thomas Munro's Minutes dated 5th May 1826, 27th June 1826, and August 1826, in Sir H. Arbuthnot's Life of Munro, II. 89-99.

[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 85. [2] Stokes' Belgaum, 86.
[3] Stokes' Belgaum, 87. [4] Stokes' Belgaum, 89.
[5] The account of the mutinies in Dhárwár is contributed by Mr. F. L. Charles, C.S.
[6] LeGrand Jacob's Western India, 226-227.

concerted a plan for a rising of the chiefs of Nargund, Rámdurg, the chief of Ánegundi in Madras, and several smaller *desáis* whose influence lay in the territory adjoining this part of the country. Their plans were greatly wanting in boldness and fixity of purpose, and, in spite of disquieting rumours, the whole of 1857 and the first five months of 1858 passed without any open act of treason. At this time the Collector was Mr. Ogilby and the Political Agent of the Southern Marátha Country was Mr. Manson. Mr. Manson was in the prime of life, intelligent, energetic, and decided. He had incurred much ill-will from his connection with the Inám Commission, but his frank and kindly disposition gave him considerable influence.[1] The policy of these two officers seems to have been, while maintaining a watch over their movements, to conciliate and refrain from alarming the dangerous chieftains. As the Nargund fort was strong and stood on the top of a steep hill, it was deemed politic to ask the chief to send his heavy guns and stores of powder to Dhárwár, on the plea that in the unsettled state of the country it was advisable to prevent the possibility of their falling into the hands of insurgents. The chief could not refuse this request without giving proof of disloyalty, and on the 7th of May 1858 all but three of his large guns and a large store of gunpowder and saltpetre were received in Dhárwár. The three guns were kept on the plea that heavy rain prevented the carts crossing the black soil between Nargund and Dhárwár. This attachment of his arms alarmed the chief and led him to suppose that his meditated treason had been discovered. Meanwhile, as it was known that Bhimráo of Mundárgi, Kenchangauda of Shirhatti and Hámgi, and the *desái* of Surtur had been concerting measures, the chief constable of Dambal was ordered to search Kanchangauda's house or fortified enclosure at Hámgi, a village on the Tungbhadra, twelve miles south of Mundárgi. The chief constable found a large quantity of arms and warlike stores, sealed the house and set a guard over it, and reported the matter to head-quarters. On this Bhimráo, thinking further concealment useless, gathered about seventy men, attacked the guard, murdered the informant, and taking the stores marched with Kanchangauda and attacked the treasury at Dambal. Fortunately all the money had been sent to Gadag the day before and the insurgents gained but little. Their numbers increased to 300 or 400, and, though pursued by the superintendent of police, they made their escape towards Kopal in the Nizám's territories, where Bhimráo's family lived. They gained Kopal fort on the 30th of May. But word that they had left Dhárwár had been telegraphed to Belári, and, by the first of June, Major Hughes with the deputy commissioner of Ráichur had collected a small force, and, after a rapid march, attacked and took Kopal, killing Bhimráo, Kenchangauda, and 100 men. This put an end to the insurrection in the east of the district. It afterwards became known that the attack on Kopal was part of

[1] LeGrand Jacob's Western India, 221, 227.

Chapter VII. History.

THE BRITISH, 1818-1883.

Disturbances, 1857-58.

a programme according to which the chief of Nargund was to attack Dhárwár and the west, while Bhimráo was to establish himself at Kopal where his family had influence. The news of Bhimráo's revolt was known almost immediately at Nargund, and the chief placed guns in position on his fort. On the 26th of May, after an interview with Brigadier-General LeGrand Jacob at Kolhápur, Mr. Manson when he heard of the threatening attitude of the Nargund chief went to Kurundvád twenty-five miles east of Kolhápur. In the hope of preventing further mischief, he moved with speed from Kurundvád to the threatened quarter, leaving his infantry escort and establishment behind, and taking with him only a dozen troopers of the Southern Marátha Horse. A letter which he had sent to Colonel G. Malcolm, commanding at Kaládgi, asking him to meet him at Rámdurg with a large body of the Southern Marátha Horse, did not reach Kaládgi till Colonel Malcolm had taken the field with 250 horse to attack the insurgents who had plundered the Dambal treasury. When Mr. Manson reached Rámdurg he had no protection but his own troopers.[1] The chief of Rámdurg was cordial, supplied him with food, and showed him letters from Nargund urging him to rebellion. Death, wrote the Nargund chief, is better than dishonour. The chief advised Mr. Manson not to go to Nargund as the country was unsafe. In spite of remonstrances, on the afternoon of the 29th May, Mr. Manson set off in a palanquin to Dhárwár to join Colonel Malcolm.[2] As the road from Rámdurg to Dhárwár passed close to Nargund, and, as in addition to his small escort he had only a couple of horsemen, Mr. Manson's position was perilous. That night (29th May) he pressed forward about ten miles to Suriabund. At Suriabund he laid down in his palanquin which had been placed on the raised platform of a rest-house. Meanwhile the Nargund chief, who was greatly incensed by a letter which Mr. Manson had sent from Rámdurg and who feared that the Political Agent had full knowledge of his treasonable intentions, went towards Rámdurg with seven or eight hundred horse and foot. Hearing that Mr. Manson was at Suriabund, he turned aside and entered the village about midnight. He surrounded the village, approached close to the spot where Mr. Manson and his party were asleep, poured on them a volley which killed the sentry, and rushed in to finish the work with the sword. Mr. Manson, roused from sleep in his palanquin, fired his revolver at his assailants and wounded one, but was immediately overpowered, his head cut off, and his body thrown into the fire that had been kindled by his party. Besides Puransing, one of the best officers of the Southern Marátha Horse, several attendants and bearers were killed, only half a dozen escaped in the dark. The chief returned to Nargund with Mr. Manson's head which he stuck on one of the gates of the town.[3] As it is only thirty miles from Nargund,

Mr. Manson Murdered.

[1] LeGrand Jacob's Western India, 223. [2] LeGrand Jacob's Western India, 224.
[3] Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 192; LeGrand Jacob's Western India, 224.

the news of Mr. Manson's murder reached Dhárwár on the 30th of May. On the same day a small force sent from Dhárwár encamped at Amargol about four miles south of Nargund. This detachment was joined by Lieutenant-Colonel Malcolm's force of one nine-pounder gun, one howitzer, two companies of the 74th Highlanders, one company of the 28th Regiment of Native Infantry, and 150 of the Southern Maratha Horse.[1] With these troops Colonel Malcolm appeared before the walls of Nargund on the morning of the 1st of June, and immediately proceeded with 100 horse to reconnoitre the fort. After reconnoitring the party retired. This movement was misunderstood by the seven hundred armed rabble which the chief had collected, and shortly afterwards they came pouring out towards the British camp. They were attacked and pursued by the cavalry who sabred them to within 500 yards of the town, inflicting a loss of upwards of sixty killed. Skirmishers were afterwards thrown forward under cover of the artillery, and by evening the town was taken with little loss and the troops were moved to the chief's palace. Early next morning a storming party wound up the steep path to the fort gates prepared to blow them open. They met with no resistance. The place was almost deserted, as many of the defenders had leaped over the precipice rather than face the storming party. The chief himself had fled as soon as his men began to retreat. Mr., now Sir Frank Souter, the superintendent of police in Belgaum, with a few horsemen followed his tract with extraordinary energy, perseverance, and skill, and, on the 2nd of June, found the chief with six of his leading followers, in the Torgal forest, disguised as pilgrims on their way to Pandharpur.[2] He was taken to Belgaum, and was confined in the main guard of Belgaum fort. He was tried and sentenced to death. On the 12th of June he was carried on a cart drawn by Mhárs through the town to Haystack Hill on which the gallows was raised, and was hanged before an immense crowd of spectators.[3] His widows, unable to bear the disgrace, drowned themselves.[4]

Thus the disturbance was quelled. In addition to the two hundred men killed in action at Nargund and Kopal, forty persons of influence were hanged after trial, and about a hundred were sentenced to various terms of imprisonment and transportation. About a hundred of the armed rabble captured at Kopal and Nargund were shot by court-matial. Several pleaders in the Dhárwár Judge's Court and the *názar* or sheriff of the Court were suspected of having favoured the rebellion. The *názar* was convicted by the first court that tried him. Government ordered a second trial, and this court, consisting of two Europeans, was unable to find the complicity of the accused proved and all were discharged. Government pensions were granted to the widows and children of Bhimráo of Mundárgi and other persons of note who had been killed and whose estates were confiscated. A proclamation issued

---

[1] Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 193.
[2] LeGrand Jacob's Western India, 222-26; Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 192-93.
[3] Stokes' Belgaum, 94.
[4] LeGrand Jacob's Western India, 226.

Chapter VII. History.

THE BRITISH, 1818-1883.

on the 3rd of June declared the state of Nargund forfeited to the British Government. When it lapsed to the British the state had forty-one villages of which seventeen were alienated, a population of about 22,700, and a gross yearly revenue of about £5000 (Rs. 50,000). Yearly allowances amounting to £130 (Rs. 1300) were bestowed on two of the nearest surviving relations of the rebel chief.[1] The fort was garrisoned for a time by a few British troops which were soon withdrawn. It is now uninhabited. As the fort has an excellent supply of water, soon after the confiscation, a proposal was made that the water cistern and a few buildings should be kept in repair and the fort used as a sanitarium for Dhárwár invalids. With this object the destruction of the cistern was countermanded. After confiscation the state remained for some time under the charge of the Political Agent of the Southern Marátha States, but was afterwards transferred to the Collector of Dhárwár. Since 1858 the public peace has been unbroken.

[1] Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 194.